A Modern English

GRAMMAR

They gave him the book

He was given the book by them
The book was given him

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A Modern English Grammar

ENEN

BY

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PREFACE

THIS book is an attempt to present the grammar of modern English in the manner prescribed by modern methods of instruction.

The general treatment of the subject has been determined by two considerations. The first is that when pupils begin the study of grammar, they not only are able to understand the language of standard English literature, but they are continually using sentences of their own with considerable fluency and accuracy. The second is that, though pupils have considerable skill in the use of language, they have little knowledge of the nature of sentences and little insight into the fundamental relations of subject, predicate, complement, and modifier.

The second consideration makes unsuitable for class-instruction those formal treatises that take for granted a knowledge of the elements of sentence structure, and begin with the discussion of single words. The first consideration discredits the method of those text-books which, following the line of progress of a child's first efforts at language, begin with single words, and require pupils to build up the mother tongue bit by bit, as if it were something new and strange. The pupils whom we set to study grammar learn to use the parts of speech and the various types of the English sentence when they are very young; and they naturally find dry and unprofitable a study which ignores the power and knowledge already acquired. When a new language is to be learned, a synthetic treatment is

natural and interesting. But when the mother tongue is the subject of critical study, the aim is, not to learn new forms of speech, but to investigate the nature of forms that are already familiar; therefore the treatment should be analytic.

With regard to arrangement, the starting point is the sentence; for surely the first months given to the formal study of the mother tongue should be spent, not in examining the properties of nouns and the other parts of speech, but in learning to separate sentences into subject, predicate, complements, and modifiers, whether these be single words or groups of words, and whether the sentences be long or short. These larger elements of sentence structure are the foundations of grammar, and they must be familiar before the pupil is ready for the study of separate words. They influence both the classification and the inflection of the parts of speech; therefore neither the classification nor the inflection of the parts of speech can be effectively studied until these are mastered.

With regard to method, the presentation is as far as possible inductive, taking familiarity with English for granted, and leading the pupil to observe, compare, and classify grammatical facts for himself. But while the author has avoided dogmatic instruction, he has, on the other hand, shunned with equal care that vagueness which results from merely asking the pupil questions and leaving him to answer them for himself. The pupil is not only led to observe for himself; he is also guided to the right inferences. Whenever, as in discussing some points of usage, it has been necessary to employ dogmatic teaching, care has been taken to speak no more strongly than the facts of usage warrant. The forms employed to exhibit graphically the logical

structure of sentences—in many books a hindrance to the pupil rather than a help—have received the united attention of the printer and the author in an attempt to make them appeal through the eye directly to the understanding.

The fund of knowledge that pupils bring into the class-room has also determined the limits which the author has set to his work. Many things often elaborately set forth in text-books may be safely taken for granted as already known. To explain them is a violation of the pedagogic maxim, "Teach the pupil what he does not know." Even the analysis of sentences, important as it is, has its limits as a means of instruction and training. In going beyond the general analysis which brings into relief the logical structure of a complex sentence we do not help the pupil, but present him with linguistic riddles that make his native tongue offensive to him.[1]

As to inflections and the uses of the various parts of speech, these are already known empirically, and the business of the grammarian is simply to help the pupil to systematize his knowledge and to avoid common errors. Distinctions and classifications, if they are too minute or numerous, confuse the mind and loosen its grasp of important things. The author has tried to make a book that will help teachers to awaken in boys and girls what is sometimes called the language sense, and strengthen their grasp of their mother tongue.

Perhaps the greatest difficulty that confronts the author of a school grammar is the diversity of opinion among grammarians as to the proper classification and nomenclature for certain locutions. Anyone, for example, who undertakes to present the English verb

[1] *S. S. Laurie:* "Lectures on Language and Linguistic Method in the School."

after the method of the most approved grammarians, will soon learn how futile it is to try to please everybody. "High and reverend authorities lift up their heads on both sides, and there is no sure footing in the middle." The author can only say that he has tried to follow those philologists who seem most likely to influence current opinion.

With regard to the exercises, the sentences for analysis have been chosen as far as possible with reference to fine literary quality. Special exercises have been prepared on the subjects that most frequently baffle students. The numerous exercises bearing on questions of good usage have been made practical. No sentences for correction have been admitted. Most of the exercises have been made fuller than usual, since it is much easier to shorten an exercise that is too long than to lengthen one that is too short.

The author acknowledges his indebtedness for helpful suggestions to Mr. Edward G. Coy, Headmaster of the Hotchkiss School; Mrs. Ella F. Young, Assistant Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Chicago; and Mrs. Sarah Ellen Andrew, Teacher of English in the Detroit (Mich.) Public High School.

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INTRODUCTION

1. Language.—Everybody has an instinctive desire to tell his thoughts and feelings to others; indeed, exchange of ideas is necessary in social life. One way of expressing thoughts is to make motions with the hands or other parts of the body, as children and deaf and dumb persons do. But the usual and very much better way is to make with the tongue and adjoining organs certain combinations of sounds which by common consent have certain meanings. These combinations of tongue-sounds, by which people express their thoughts and feelings, form **Language** (from Latin *lingua*, "tongue"). Combinations of sounds that stand for single ideas are called **Words.** These are in turn combined into thought-groups called **Sentences.**

2. Why Our Language is Called English.—Our language is called English because it is the language that has been spoken for more than fifteen hundred years in England, whence it has been carried to America and other parts of the world by English colonists.

3. The Early Home of English.—But the English language did not have its beginning in England. It was carried there in 449 A. D. by people who migrated from the banks of the river Elbe and the southwest coasts of the Baltic Sea. These people were from three tribes, called Angles, Saxons, and Jutes. Of the *Jutes* who moved to England nearly all trace has been

MAP SHOWING THE EARLY HOME OF ENGLISH.

lost. The *Angles* and the *Saxons* drove the original inhabitants—the Britons—into the mountainous parts of the island, and in course of time founded the *Anglo-Saxon* race. They called their new country "Angleland," or "England;" themselves and their language they called "English."

The wonderful way in which the English language has spread over the world is shown by the accompanying maps. The map on this page shows

the early home of English, when it was a mere dialect of German, spoken by a few tribes. The shaded portions of the map below show the regions of the world in which English is now used.

Bormay & Co., N.Y.

MAP SHOWING THE SPREAD OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

How far English has outstripped other languages may be seen from the following table, which shows the number of people speaking the principal European languages in 1890:—

English	111,100,000
German	75,200,000
Russian	75,000,000
French	51,200,000
Spanish	42,800,000
Italian	33,400,000
Portuguese	13,000,000

4. Old English Different from Modern English.—The language carried to England by the Anglo-

Saxons was so unlike the English of to-day that at first glance it seems to be quite a different tongue. Here, for example, is the Lord's Prayer in Anglo-Saxon, or Old English, with the corresponding modern English words printed underneath:—

Fæder ūre, þū þe eart on heofenum
Father our, thou that art in heavens

Sī þīn nama gehalgod
Be thy name hallowed

To becume thīn rīce
Arrive thy kingdom

Geweorþe þīn willa on eorþan, swā swā on heofenum
Be-done thy will on earth, so-as in heavens

Urne dæghwamlican hlāf syle us to dæg
Our daily loaf give us to-day

And forgyf us ūre gyltas, swā swā we forgifaþ ūrum gyltendum
And forgive us our debts, so-as we forgive our debtors

And ne gelǣde þū us on costnunge, ac alȳs us of yfle
And not lead thou us into temptation, but loose us of evil

Sōþlice.
Soothly (*Amen*).

5. Relation of Old English to Modern English. —Strange-looking as this Old English is, it is the same language as that which we use. The difference between it and modern English is no more to be wondered at than the difference between a young child and the same child when grown to manhood. Some knowledge of *how* our language has grown and changed is helpful to the study of it as it is to-day.

6. How Our Language has Grown.—When our language was carried to England, it consisted of probably not more than two thousand words; now it contains more than two hundred thousand—a much larger number than any other language. These new words have come into the language in many interesting ways:—

(1) *British Words.*—When the Anglo-Saxons settled in England and drove off the Britons, they adopted some British words, just as the Americans have adopted some Indian words. Of these words, adopted from the Britons, examples are: "cradle" and "crock."

ROMAN WALL IN THE NORTH OF ENGLAND.
Built by the Romans as a defense against native tribes.

(2) *Latin Words Found in Britain.*—For several hundred years before the arrival of the Anglo-Saxons, England had been in the possession of the Romans. When the Romans withdrew from the island in 410 A. D., they left behind a few Latin

words, which were adopted by the Anglo-Saxons. Examples are: "street" (Latin *strata via*, "paved way"), "mile" (Latin *milia passuum*, "a thousand paces"), and "wall" (Latin *vallum*).

ANCIENT DANISH BOAT FOR FOURTEEN PAIRS OF OARS.
78 feet long, 10 feet broad. Found in a peat bog in Jutland.

(3) *Missionary Words.*—About the year 600 A. D. Christianity began to be received by the Saxons through Roman missionaries; and with the missionaries came many new words from the Latin. Examples are: "monk" (Latin *monachus*) and "clerk" (Latin *clericus*).

(4) *Danish Words.*—Toward the end of the eighth century Norsemen or Danes overran parts of England, and many of their words were adopted by the English. Examples are: "sky" and "ugly."

(5) *Norman-French Words.*—In 1066 William of Normandy conquered England in the great movement known as the Norman Invasion. The Normans, who came from France, spoke Norman-French, which was for the most part modified Latin.

In England they seized the land and all the political power, filled all the offices, and made their language the language of the court, the law, the schools, and the church. We cannot dwell on the particulars of the tremendous change in our language which was wrought by this Norman Invasion. It is enough to say that after three hundred years of contact with Norman-French the English language was very much richer in vocabulary and softer in sound. Of the many hundreds of Norman-French words in our language examples are: "battle," "forest," "duke," and "family."

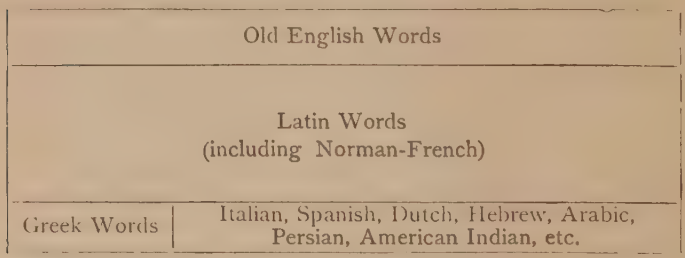
(6) *Words from Latin Books.*—In the sixteenth century, through the influence of what is called the Revival of Learning, the study of Latin became very popular in England. No one was considered well educated unless he could read Latin; nearly all important books were written in Latin; and Latin words began to appear in English conversation and writing. Since these Latin-English words were learned from books, they closely resembled in spelling the original Latin words. Examples are: "example" (Latin *exemplum*), "fact" (Latin *factum*), and "quiet" (Latin *quietus*).

(7) *Imported Words.*—The descendants of the Anglo-Saxons have always been great travelers and traders; and in their traveling and trading they have collected words from all parts of the world. Examples are: from Spain, "mosquito;" from Italy, "piano;" from Holland, "skate;" from Germany, "zinc;" from Africa, "gorilla;" from

the American Indian, "hammock" and "tomato;" from Arabia, "sofa;" from China, "silk;" from India, "sugar;" from Persia, "awning;" from Turkey, "tulip."

(8) *New Words for New Things.*—New discoveries and inventions, as they have occurred, have given new words to our language. Examples are: "photograph" and "telephone."

7. Proportion of Foreign Words in Modern English.—The proportion of words in modern English which have been drawn from the sources just described may be roughly represented as follows:—



8. Changes in Our Language.—Our language has not only grown; it has changed.

(1) *In Inflections.*—Old English was what is called a highly inflected language. An inflected language is one that joins words together in sentences by means of "inflections" or changes in the words themselves. For example, in Old English *oxan* meant "oxen," *oxena* meant "of oxen," *oxum* meant "with oxen." Accordingly, instead of saying as we do "tongues *of* oxen," our Anglo-Saxon ances-

tors said "tungan oxen*a*." Traces of these word-changes or inflections still remain in our language: as, "sing," "sing*s*."

(2) *In Order of Words.*—The order of words in Old English was clumsy and involved. For example, instead of saying as we do,—

When Darius saw that he would be overcome,

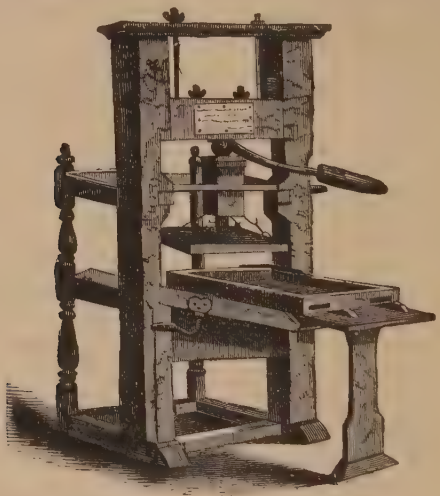
our Anglo-Saxon ancestors would have said,—

When Darius saw that he overcome be would.

(3) *In Sound.*—Old English was a guttural speech, full of harsh, choking sounds. For example, our "holy" was once "hālig," our "bridge" was once "brigg" (as in Scotland to this day), our "day" was once "daeg," our "light" was once pronounced like the Scotch "licht."

9. How Changes Came About.—The greatest changes in our language occurred between 1100 and 1500 A. D., that is to say, during the four centuries that followed the Norman Conquest. The story of the changes is too long to be told here; but some idea of how they came about may be gained by noticing what happens to-day when a foreigner who has only half learned English tries to speak it. He mispronounces the words, arranges them after the manner of his own language, neglects the inflections. In somewhat the same way, when the Anglo-Saxons and the Norman-French became one people, and their languages were fused into modern English, sounds were modified, the order was changed, and inflections were dropped.

10. Language Still Subject to Change.—Since the invention of printing, changes in English have not been numerous; for the vast number of printed



EARLY PRINTING PRESS.

books and papers, and the immense spread of the ability to read and write, have given to our language a rigidity of form which it could not have so long as it existed chiefly on men's tongues. For example, the language of the English Bible, which is sixteenth-century English, differs little from the English of to-day. But some change is still going on, for modifying influences are still at work. English-speaking people in different parts of the world do not talk exactly alike; new words are coming in; old words are dropping out; the forms and uses of other words are changing. An example of this modern change is found in the word "whom." The

"m" in this word is an inflection, once useful in conveying meaning; and we still say, when we wish to speak very accurately, "Whom did you see?" But since the "m" is no longer necessary to the meaning, people have become very careless about using it, and even good speakers often say, "Who did you see?"

11. Good English.—Good English is the English used by the best speakers and writers; and the use of such English is "only a phase of good manners." Bad English, that is, English unlike that which is used by well-informed and careful writers, produces in the mind of a well-informed reader an impression of vulgarity or ignorance similar to that which we get from seeing a person eat with his knife. It is with language as with clothes and conduct. Persons who wish to be classed as cultivated people must not only dress and act like cultivated people; they must also speak and write like them. A help toward this end is the study of grammar.

12. Grammar.—Grammar is an account of the relations which words bear to one another when they are put together in sentences. An understanding of these relations requires some knowledge of the nature, the forms, and the history of words, but only so far as these bear on the uses of words in sentences. The proper starting point of English grammar is the sentence. The discussion of words considered by themselves belongs to the dictionary.

13. Uses of Grammar.—It is not by grammar, however, that we learn to speak or write. Speaking and writing our mother tongue are habits, formed by imitation long before we acquire that knowledge which is the subject-matter of grammar. The object of the study of grammar is to learn the uses of words in sentences, so that we may test the habits of speech which we have already acquired, and make them conform to the best models. Incidentally the study of grammar affords invaluable mental training.

14. Grammars Old and New.—Among English-speaking peoples grammar was first studied as a step toward the learning of Latin, and the first English grammar was called an "Introduction to Lily's Latin Grammar." The author of that first English grammar, keeping his eye on Latin rather than on English, and making his work conform to Latin models, treated English as if it were in all important respects like Latin and Greek, with no history or laws of its own. As a matter of fact, English differs greatly from other languages. In structure it is essentially Anglo-Saxon. Yet the mistake of the first English grammar was followed by succeeding books for nearly four hundred years. Now we have learned better, and study our language with reference to its own nature and history.

PART I

SENTENCES AND THEIR STRUCTURE

CHAPTER 1

OF SENTENCES IN GENERAL

15. Ideas and Phrases.—The word "dog," when heard or seen, instantly creates in the mind a mental picture of a well-known animal. This mental picture is called an IDEA. The idea may be made more definite by the addition of other words, as, "The big bulldog in Mr. Smith's yard;" but though the idea is now complex, that is, has several parts, it still remains a single mental picture.

Definition.—A group of related words expressing a single idea is called a **Phrase.**

16. Thoughts and Sentences.—The phrase "The big bulldog in Mr. Smith's yard" is satisfactory as an expression of a mental picture or idea; but as a remark made by some one it is incomplete, for we at once find ourselves asking, "Well, what about that dog?" We are satisfied when we hear that "The big bulldog in Mr. Smith's yard *barked.*" From this group of words we get more than a single idea. We get, first, the idea of a certain dog, and, secondly, we get an idea of what the dog did. Of these ideas, the second is an assertion about the first. Two ideas of this kind—something thought of and an assertion about it—together form a complete THOUGHT.

Definition.—A group of related words expressing a complete thought is called a **Sentence.**

17. Sentences and Phrases Distinguished.— "The big bulldog barking in the yard" is not a sentence, for it contains no assertion. "Barking" does, indeed, imply action; but it does not assert. It is merely a descriptive word, like "big," helping to fill out the mental picture of a certain dog, about which as yet no assertion has been made. "Big" shows the size of the dog, "barking" shows his occupation, "in the yard" shows his whereabouts; what the big dog barking in the yard did, we have yet to learn. The words as they stand express a single complex idea, not a thought; that is, they form a phrase, not a sentence. The phrase will become a sentence if we add an assertion: as, "The big bulldog barking in the yard *frightened me;*" or if we connect "dog" and "barking" by an asserting word like "is," which turns the *implied* action into an *asserted* action: as, "The big bulldog *is* barking in the yard." In either case we shall have two separate ideas, one of which is an assertion about the other.

Query: What other asserting words might be used in the last sentence instead of "is"?

EXERCISE 1.

1. *Tell which of the following groups of words are phrases and which are sentences. Make sentences out of the phrases by adding appropriate asserting words:*—

1. The man in the moon.
2. The man in the moon came down too soon.
3. The boy in blue.

4. The boy reciting his lesson.
5. The boy in blue reciting his lesson.
6. The boy reciting his lesson is my brother.
7. His attempt to catch the ball.
8. A primrose by the river's brim.
9. A rolling stone gathers no moss.
10. The children playing in the street.
11. Vessels carrying coal.
12. The apples hanging on the tree.
13. Wounds made by words are hard to heal.
14. Charles, seeing a crowd in the street.
15. The girl at the spring, having filled her pitcher.
16. To play football well.

2. *Construct five phrases about things in the schoolroom, and show that they are not sentences.*

3. *Construct five sentences about things in the schoolroom, and show that they are sentences.*

18. Sentences Classified.—Examine the sentences in the following conversation:—

Donald: I found these big apples in grandfather's barn.

Dorothy: Show us where you got them.

Jack: Are there any more left?

Helen: Aren't they beauties!

You observe that, in the first sentence, Donald's thought is an *assertion;* in the second, Dorothy's thought is a *request* or a *command;* in the third, Jack's thought is a *question;* in the fourth, Helen's thought seems at first glance to be a question about the beauty of the apples; but a little reflection shows that this cannot be, since she already knows that the apples are beauties. As a matter of fact

she is merely expressing her delight by an *exclamation*, which has the interrogative form.

Definitions.—Sentences that assert are called **Assertive Sentences.**

Sentences that ask are called **Interrogative Sentences.**

Sentences that command are called **Imperative Sentences.**

When assertive, interrogative, and imperative sentences are used as exclamations expressing strong feeling, they are called **Exclamatory Sentences.**

EXERCISE 2.

Tell the kind of each sentence in the following selections:—

1. We all do fade as a leaf.
2. Fear God. Honor the king.
3. The king is dead! Long live the king!
4. A living dog is better than a dead lion.
5. Can a man take fire in his bosom, and his clothes not be burned?
6. Half a league, half a league,
   Half a league onward,
   All in the valley of death
   Rode the Six Hundred.
   "Forward, the Light Brigade!
   Charge for the guns!" he said.
   Into the valley of death
   Rode the Six Hundred.

   * * * *

   When can their glory fade?
   O the wild charge they made!
   All the world wonder'd.
   Honor the charge they made!
   Honor the Light Brigade,
   Noble Six Hundred!

19. Written Sentences.—In writing, the first word of every sentence begins with a capital letter.

The end of an assertive or an imperative sentence is marked by a period (.). The end of an interrogative sentence is marked by an interrogation point (?). When the sentences are exclamatory, these marks are changed to exclamation points (!).

EXERCISE 3.

1. *Write two assertive sentences about noted men.* 2. *Write two interrogative sentences.* 3. *Write two imperative sentences.* 4. *Write an exclamatory sentence.*

20. Assertive Sentences Most Common.—Most sentences are assertive in character. Interrogative and imperative sentences are like assertive sentences in fundamental structure, the difference being often only a difference in the order of words: as, "Can he sing?" "He can sing." Therefore, in our study of sentence-structure, we shall speak chiefly of the assertive sentence, taking it as the type-form.

21. The Origin of Sentences.—If you ever cut your finger with a knife or other sharp instrument, you probably exclaimed "Ouch!" before you clearly realized what had happened. By this exclamation you gave expression to your feeling of pain, and a person hearing you would know that you were suddenly hurt; but *what* hurt you or *how* it hurt you he would not know, for you had not yet said anything definite. Indeed, you said "Ouch!" before you yourself had any clear idea of what the trouble was. As soon as you had time to think, you perceived that the cause of the pain was a cutting, and that the person who did the cutting was yourself. In other words, out of your *feeling* there presently grew

a *thought*, which had two parts—the idea of the person who had caused the pain, and the idea of what this person had done. This thought you perhaps expressed in the words, "I cut myself"—a sentence which has two parts corresponding to the two parts of your thought: namely, *somebody* ("I"), and an *assertion* about this somebody ("cut myself"). A person hearing these words would immediately recognize the two parts of your thought—the *somebody* and the *assertion*—in other words, the *actor* and the *act*.

Perhaps you were once frightened by a noise in a dark room. If so, the exclamation "Oh!" probably expressed your fear,—a feeling which was immediately followed in your mind by a thought containing two parts: "That—what is it?" Putting these two parts together—an idea of something, and a query about it—you perhaps expressed your thought in the question, "What is that?"

Similarly, if you should see a child about to eat a poisonous berry, you would say quickly, "Throw that away." In this case the thought aroused by what you see takes the form of a command, with two parts as before—what is to be done, and the person who is to do it; but the latter is not named, because you are speaking to him, and to name him is unnecessary.

CHAPTER II

OF SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

22. Two Necessary Parts to Every Sentence.—Examine the following sentences:—

Naming Part.	Asserting Part.
Fire	burns.
I	cut myself.
The school bell	has just rung.
The big bulldog in Mr. Smith's yard	barked at me.

You observe that each sentence has two parts—the naming part and an asserting part—and that both parts are necessary.

23. Subject and Predicate Defined.—The part of a sentence which denotes that about which an assertion is made is called the **Subject.**

The asserting part is called the **Predicate** (Latin, "thing said").

In an INTERROGATIVE sentence the predicate *asks* something about the subject.

In an IMPERATIVE sentence the predicate *commands*, and the subject is generally omitted, because the subject of a command is always the person or persons spoken to, and to name it is unnecessary: as, "Listen [ye];" "Don't [you] forget."

EXERCISE 4.

Write out a thought or a feeling suggested by each of the following subjects:—

1. Flowers ——.
2. Lions ——.
3. Indians ——.
4. Stars ——.
5. Chalk ——.
6. Farmers ——.
7. Chickens ——.
8. Bees ——.
9. I ——.
10. He ——.
11. Who ——?
12. My desk ——.

EXERCISE 5.

With what subjects would the following predicates be appropriate?

1. —— sing.
2. —— climb.
3. —— spin.
4. —— trot.
5. —— grow.
6. —— are playing.
7. —— will be here soon.
8. Is —— coming?
9. Can —— ride a bicycle?
10. Twice was —— thrown.
11. What large muscles —— has!
12. —— will help me?

24. Position of the Subject.—The subject does not always come first. Thus:—

Predicate.	Subject.
Up went	the balloon.
Then burst	his mighty heart.
There was	a little man.
The last of all the bards was	he.
In the shade of the great elm trees stands	a weather-beaten house.

Sometimes the subject is put between parts of the predicate like a wedge. In the following sentences, for example, the subjects are printed in italics:—

Is *Fred* coming?

Where do *pineapples* grow?

How fast *the snow* falls!

Slowly and sadly *we* laid him down.

At the appointed time *the gladiators* marched into the arena.

Has *every pupil in the class* brought his book?

EXERCISE 6.

Construct two sentences in which the subjects come first; two in which the subjects come last; two in which the subjects come between parts of the predicate.

EXERCISE 7.

Tell the subject of each of the following sentences:—

1. Which way does the wind come? 2. Up flew the windows all. 3. Down went the Royal George. 4. Flashed all their sabers bare. 5. Great is Diana of the Ephesians. 6. Ten spears he swept within his grasp. 7. One new-made mound I saw close by. 8. Where are those lights so many and fair? 9. Now wherefore stopp'st thou me? 10. There lay the rider distorted and pale. 11. A dainty plant is the ivy green. 12. Deep drank Lord Marmion of the wave. 13. Doubtful seemed the battle. 14. Wise are all His ways. 15. That gale I well remember. 16. Where did you find your book? 17. Are your friends coming? 18. Thorns and thistles shall the earth bring forth. 19. Me restored he to mine office. 20. Great is your reward in Heaven. 21. Of his early life few particulars have reached us. 22. Overhead I heard a murmur. 23. Of noble race the lady came. 24. Oft did the harvest to their sickle yield. 25. About half-past one in the afternoon, on the twenty-first of September, Sir Walter Scott breathed his last, in the presence of all his children.

26. At the door, on summer evenings,
Sat the little Hiawatha.

27. On the car
Drops the light drip of the suspended oar.

28. Her wing shall the eagle flap
O'er the false-hearted.

29. To seek thee did I often rove
Through woods and on the green.

30. Stormed at with shot and shell
Boldly they rode and well.

CAUTION.—Consider carefully whether "stormed at with shot and shell" belongs to the subject or to the predicate. Be on your guard against mistakes in similar cases.

31. The pavement damp and cold
No smiling courtiers tread.

32. Under the walls of Monterey
At daybreak the bugles began to play.

33. Meanwhile, from street and lane, a noisy crowd
Had rolled together, like a summer cloud.

34. In the courtyard of the castle, bound with many an iron band,
Stands the mighty linden planted by Queen Kunigunde's hand.

35. In the Acadian land, on the shores of the Basin of Minas,
Distant, secluded, still, the little village of Grand-Pré
Lay in the fruitful valley.

36. The castle's bound
I wander round,
Amidst the grassy graves.

37. Up and down the dreary camp
In great boots of Spanish leather,
Striding with a measured tramp,
These Hidalgos, dull and damp,
Cursed the Frenchmen.

25. Compound Subjects.—Very often the same predicate is used with two or more connected subjects: as,

Connected Subjects.	Predicate.
Flowers and *ferns*	grow beside the brook.
The mountain and *the squirrel*	had a quarrel.
The present scene, the future lot, his toils, his wants, all	were forgotten.

Definition.—Two or more connected subjects having the same predicate form a **Compound Subject.**

26. Compound Predicates.—Very often the same subject has several connected predicates: as,

Subject.	Connected Predicates.
States	*rise* and *fall.*
Charity	*suffereth long* and *is kind.*
The King of Hearts	*called for the tarts* and *beat the knave full sore.*

Definition.—Two or more connected predicates having the same subject form a **Compound Predicate.**

27. Compound Subject and Predicate.—Sometimes both subject and predicate are compound: as,

Compound Subject.	Compound Predicate.
Spring and *summer*	*came* and *went.*

EXERCISE 8.

Construct two sentences with compound subjects; two with compound predicates; two in which both subject and predicate are compound.

EXERCISE 9.

In the following sentences separate the subjects from the predicates. If a subject or a predicate is compound, separate it into its parts :—

1. She and her brother were there.

MODEL FOR ORAL EXERCISE.—The predicate is "were there;" the subject is "She and her brother," a compound subject consisting of "She" and "her brother," connected by "and."

MODEL FOR WRITTEN EXERCISE.—

S.	P.
She and her brother	were there.

2. Copper and tin are found in England.

3. Spring and summer, autumn and winter, rush by in quick succession.

4. Scepter and crown
Must tumble down.

5. Jack and Jill went up the hill
To fetch a pail of water.

6. The lion and the unicorn
Were fighting for the crown.

7. The stranger came with iron hand
And from our fathers reft the land.

8. Little Bo-Peep fell fast asleep
And dreamt she heard them bleating.

9. Then my heart with pleasure fills
And dances with the daffodils.

10. Only the foolish and the dead never change their opinions.

11. The optic nerve passes from the brain to the back of the eyeball, and there spreads out.

12. The horses and the cattle were fastened in the same stables and were fed at the same time.

13. The natives of Ceylon build houses of the trunks of cocoa-nut palms and thatch the roofs with the leaves.

14. In the best books, great men talk to us, give us their most precious thoughts, and pour their souls into ours.

15. Under the benignant influence of peace and liberty, science has flourished, and has been applied to practical purposes.

16. In England, two hundred years ago, the seats of the gentry and the larger farmhouses were fortified against roving bands of robbers.

17. Arms, huge stones, and boiling water were always kept in readiness for use in repelling plunderers.

18. Of the old baronial keeps many had been shattered by the cannon of Fairfax and Cromwell, and lay in heaps of ruin.

19. The fine horses of the Life Guards, their rich housings, their cuirasses, and their buff coats adorned with ribbons, velvet, and gold lace, made a splendid appearance in St. James's Park.

20. Dragoons were armed with muskets, and were also provided with bayonets, fitted into the muzzles of the guns.

21. The common law of England knew nothing of courts-martial, and made no distinction in time of peace between a soldier and any other subject.

22. A soldier by knocking down his colonel incurred only the ordinary penalties of assault and battery, and by refusing to obey orders, by sleeping on guard, or by deserting his colors, incurred no legal penalty at all.

23. The thunder,
Winged with red lightning and impetuous rage,
Perhaps hath spent his shafts, and ceases now
To bellow through the vast and boundless deep.

24. The mind is its own place, and in itself
Can make a Heaven of Hell, a Hell of Heaven.

28. Impersonal Subject.—Examine the following sentences:—

It rains.
It is snowing.
It is growing dark.

If we try to find the subjects of these sentences by asking "What rains?" "What is snowing?" "What is growing dark?" the only answer is "It." But "it" does not here denote any person or thing. Therefore it is called an **Impersonal Subject,** and the sentence is an **Impersonal Sentence.**

EXERCISE 10.

Make five impersonal sentences of your own.

29. "It" Expletive.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) To find fault is easy.
(*b*) It is easy to find fault.

In meaning these sentences are exactly alike; but, they differ in (1) form and (2) emphasis. With regard to form, the first sentence begins with the subject, "to find fault," which is followed by the predicate, "is easy;" the second sentence begins with "it," followed immediately by the predicate, which in turn is followed by the subject. The effect of the second form is to shift the emphasis from the predicate to the subject. The sentence tells us, not so much that something *is easy*, as that what is easy is *to find fault*. In such sentences the introductory word "it" has no meaning, and is therefore commonly called an **Expletive** (Latin, "filling up"). Other examples are: "*It* is doubtful whether he will come;" "*It* is certain that the sun spins like a top."

In such sentences, and indeed in all sentences.

the subject is invariably the answer to the question formed by putting "who" or "what" before the predicate: as, in the sentences above, "What is certain?" "What is doubtful?"

EXERCISE 11.

Tell the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:—

1. It is good to be here.
2. It does not pay to worry.
3. It is not all of life to live.
4. It will not suit us to go with you.
5. It is easy to see where the fault lies.
6. It is more blessed to give than to receive.
7. It is a good thing to give thanks unto the Lord.
8. It is natural to man to indulge in the illusions of hope.
9. It is said that Paris uses one million oysters a day.
10. It is said that in Alaska horses and cows eat salmon.
11. It was said to them of old time, Thou shalt not kill.
12. It is hard to believe that the finest railway station in the world is in India.
13. It is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.
14. It has been proved by actual measurement that the thread forming the cocoon of the silkworm is eleven miles long.

EXERCISE 12.

Construct five sentences that begin with "it" expletive, and tell the subject and the predicate of each.

30. "There" Expletive.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) A gust of wind came.

(*b*) There came a gust of wind.

You observe that these sentences, too, are alike in meaning, but differ in (1) form and (2) emphasis. The second sentence begins with "there," and, like the sentences beginning with "it" expletive, shifts the emphasis from the predicate to the subject, which is put last. The second sentence tells us, not so much that a gust of wind *came*, as that what came was *a gust of wind*. The use of the word "there" is precisely like that of the word "it" described in the last section. Having no meaning by itself, it is an **Expletive.** Other examples are: "*There* was water in the well;" "*There* are two sides to every question."

The expletive "there" is regularly used before the various forms of "be" when they denote existence: as, "*There is* a God;" "*There were* giants in those days."

EXERCISE 13.

Tell the subject and the predicate of each of the following sentences:—

1. There is no one here.
2. There was no help for him.
3. Is there no hope?
4. May there be enough for all!
5. There is no peace to the wicked.
6. Is there anything more to do?
7. There was a jolly miller once.
8. There was silence deep as death.
9. There is no royal road to learning.
10. There came a voice from heaven.
11. There's a divinity that shapes our ends.

12. There is a reaper whose name is Death.

13. There was a sound of revelry by night.

14. There is a higher law than the Constitution.

15. There is no good in arguing with the inevitable.

16. There came to the beach a poor exile of Erin.

17. There is no gathering the rose without being pricked by the thorns.

18. There is now less flogging in the great English schools than formerly.

EXERCISE 14.

Construct five sentences that begin with "there" expletive, and tell the subject and the predicate of each.

To the Teacher.—Power to distinguish the logical subject from the predicate must precede all efforts at grammatical analysis; and until the pupil has acquired this power, nothing else should be attempted. The end to be kept in view in the following exercise is not the mastery of definitions—a comparatively easy thing—but the development of power to see instantly the fundamental structure of sentences. In other words, the end in view is not knowledge but insight.

EXERCISE 15.

(Review.)

In the following sentences separate the subject from the predicate:—

I.

1. Come with me.
2. Our revels now are ended.
3. Give me your attention.
4. Whom did the old man ask for?
5. Sweet are the uses of adversity.
6. A thing of beauty is a joy forever.
7. The way of transgressors is hard.
8. Adown the glen rode armed men.
9. The aged minstrel audience gained.

10. The memory of the just is blessed.

11. There came a burst of thunder-sound.

12. What became of your toy steamboat?

13. A merry heart maketh a cheerful countenance.

14. The precious morning hours should not be wasted.

15. The cat, prowling round the yard, caught a young robin.

16. The sentinel on Whitehall gate looked forth into the night.

17. The tails of some comets stretch to the distance of 100,000,000 miles.

18. The great qualities of Charlemagne were alloyed by the vices of a barbarian.

19. The history of the Anglo-Saxon race is emphatically the history of progress.

20. The first standing army was formed in the middle of the fifteenth century.

21. In 1805 Nansen got within two hundred and twenty-seven miles of the North Pole.

22. The first astronomical observatory in Europe was erected by the Saracens at Seville, in Spain.

23. From Clive's second visit to India dates the political ascendency of the English in that country.

24. On the first day of the battle of Gettysburg the Confederates captured several thousand prisoners.

II.

1. Here stands the man.

2. Wide open stood the doors.

3. Overhead I heard a murmur.

4. Great and marvelous are Thy works.

5. In those days came John the Baptist.

6. In my Father's house are many mansions.

7. Into the valley of death rode the six hundred.

8. A little boy with crumbs of bread
Many a hungry sparrow fed.

9. From floor to ceiling
Like a huge organ rise the burnished arms.

10. Unwounded from the dreadful close,
But breathless all, Fitz-James arose.

CAUTION.—Consider whether "Unwounded from the dreadful close, But breathless all" belongs to the subject or to the predicate. Be on your guard in similar cases.

11. Underneath this sable hearse
Lies the subject of all verse.

12. Within a windowed niche of that high hall
Sate Brunswick's fated chieftain.

13. On the British heart were lost
The terrors of the charging host.

14. Full many a gem of purest ray serene
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

15. Down the street with laughter and shout,
Glad in the freedom of school let out,
Come the boys.

16. Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the Basin of Minas,
Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand-Pré,
Dwelt on his goodly acres.

17. Far down the beautiful river,
Past the Ohio shore and past the mouth of the Wabash,
Into the golden stream of the broad and swift Mississippi
Floated a cumbrous boat.

18. Meanwhile, apart, at the head of the hall, the priest and the herdsman
Sat, conversing together of past and present and future.

III.

1. Down went the Cumberland all a wrack,
With a sudden shudder of death,
And the cannon's breath
For her dying gasp.

2. Serene in the rapturous throng,
Unmoved by the rush of the song,
With eyes unimpassioned and slow,
Among the dead angels, the deathless
Sandalphon stands listening breathless.

3. Hearing his imperial name
Coupled with those words of malice,
Half in anger, half in shame,
Forth the great campaigner came
Slowly from his canvas palace.

4. To confirm his words out-flew
Millions of flaming swords, drawn from the thighs of mighty cherubim.

5. Satan, above the rest
In shape and gesture proudly eminent,
Stood like a tower.

6. His face
Deep scars of thunder had intrenched.

7. Him the Almighty Power
Hurled headlong flaming from the ethereal sky,
With hideous ruin and combustion, down
To bottomless perdition.

8. On each hand the flames
Driven backward slope their pointing spires.

9. The imperial ensign, full high advanced,
Shone like a meteor streaming to the wind,
With gems and golden luster rich emblazed.

10. Anon out of the earth a fabric huge
Rose like an exhalation, with the sound
Of dulcet symphonies and voices sweet,
Built like a temple.

11. From the arched roof,
Pendent by subtle magic, many a row
Of starry lamps and blazing cressets, fed
With naphtha and asphaltus, yielded light
As from a sky.

IV.

London Streets in the Seventeenth Century.

The houses were not numbered; there would, indeed, have been little advantage in numbering them; for[1] of the coachmen, chairmen, porters, and errand boys of London, a very small portion could read. It was necessary to use marks which the most ignorant could understand. The shops were therefore[1] distinguished by painted signs, which gave a gay and grotesque aspect to the streets.

When the evening closed in, the difficulty and danger of walking about London became serious indeed. The garret windows were opened, and pails were emptied, with little regard to those who were passing below. Falls, bruises, and broken bones were of constant occurrence; for[1], till the last year of the reign of Charles the Second, most of the streets were left in profound darkness. Thieves and robbers plied their trades with impunity; yet[1] they were hardly so terrible to peaceable citizens as another class of ruffians. It was a favorite amusement of dissolute young gentlemen to swagger by night about the town, breaking windows, upsetting sedans, beating quiet men, and offering rude caresses to pretty women.—*Macaulay:* "History of England," chapter iii.

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[1] A connecting word, belonging neither to the subject nor to the predicate.

CHAPTER III

OF SUBSTANTIVE AND VERB[1]

31. Logic *vs.* Grammar.—The distinction between subject and predicate belongs to thought as well as to the expression of thought. It exists in a speaker's mind before he expresses his thought in words. The distinction is therefore a logical distinction rather than a grammatical one; for grammar has to do only with the expression of thought, that is, with words. We come now to consider the words used in forming the subject and the predicate, and here we enter the field of grammar proper.

32. Substantive and Verb Defined.—Compare the following sentences:—

Subject.	Predicate.
Stars	twinkle.
The beautiful *stars*, which are really suns about a million miles in diameter and trillions of miles away,	*twinkle* brightly on frosty nights.

You observe that one sentence is composed of two words, the other of many; but the fundamental structure of both is the same. Both make assertions about *stars*, and in both cases the assertion is that

[1] *To the Teacher.*—Only those features of the verb are treated in this chapter which are needed for an understanding of the general structure of sentences.

The term "substantive" is in Part I preferred to "noun," because (1) it is a convenient term to include both nouns and substitutes for nouns, and (2) it furnishes the useful word "substantively."

stars *twinkle*. But in the second sentence the fundamental words, "stars" and "twinkle," are accompanied by words and groups of words called **Adjuncts** ("joined to").

Definition.—A word used (with or without adjuncts) to denote an object of thought is called a **Substantive.**

Definition.—A word used (with or without adjuncts) as the predicate of a sentence is called a **Verb** (Latin, "the word;" so named because of its supreme importance).

When we say that a sentence must contain a subject and a predicate, we speak logically. Speaking grammatically, we say that it must contain a substantive and a verb.

33. Grammatical and Logical Terms Distinguished.—In the sentence "The beautiful stars, which are really suns about a million miles in diameter and trillions of miles away, twinkle brightly on frosty nights," the substantive "stars" is called the **Simple Subject** to distinguish it from the **Complete Subject,** which consists of the simple subject and its adjuncts. "Twinkle" is called the **Verb** to distinguish it from the **Predicate,** which consists of the verb and its adjuncts. Other examples are:—

Complete Subject.	Predicate.
Low black *clouds* (Simple Subject.)	usually *gather* before a storm. (Verb.)
The *conditions* of war (Simple Subject.)	*vary* from age to age with the progress of weapons. (Verb.)

EXERCISE 16.

Construct four sentences in which the simple subject is different from the complete subject, and the verb from the predicate.

EXERCISE 17.

In the following sentences point out, in the order named, the complete subject, the predicate, the simple subject, and the verb:—

1. The ripest fruit falls first.
2. She dwelt on a wild moor.
3. The good news arrived yesterday.
4. A soft answer turneth away wrath.
5. A hot fire of coals burned in the grate.
6. A fox jumped up on a moonlight night.
7. The sudden splash frightened the nurse.
8. Bright-eyed daisies peep up everywhere.
9. The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.
10. Three wise men of Gotham went to sea in a bowl.
11. Waldo, playing on the bank of the brook, tumbled into the water.
12. The master of the district school
    Held at the fire his favorite place.

34. Verbs of Action, Being, and State.—Compare the meanings of the verbs in the following sentences:—

Birds *sing*.
My lady *sleeps*.
He *loves* children.
There *is* a flaw in the metal.

You observe that "sing" asserts *action*; "sleeps" asserts *state* or *condition*; "loves" asserts *feeling*;

"is" asserts *existence* or *being*. It is sometimes said, therefore, that a verb is a word that asserts action, being, or state—feelings being looked on as mental actions.

Most verbs assert action.

EXERCISE 18.

1. *In Exercise 7 tell whether the verbs assert action, being, or state.*

2. *Construct three sentences in which the verbs assert action; two in which they assert state or condition; one in which the verb asserts existence or being.*

35. The Verb "To Be."—"Am," "is," "are," "was," "were," and the less common "art," "wast," and "wert"—all of them forms of the verb "to be"—are so peculiar in their use that they require special notice. The peculiarity will appear if we carefully compare the predicates in the following sentences:—

The lightning *flashed.*
Lightning *is electricity.*

In the first sentence, you observe, the predicate consists of the verb "flashed," which does two things: first, it calls up in the mind an idea of sudden brilliance; secondly, it asserts this brilliance of the lightning. In other words, it has both *meaning* and *assertive power*.

In the second sentence, the predicate consists of two words, "is" and "electricity," each of which is

necessary. But mark the difference between them. "Electricity" is a word of definite *meaning*, calling up instantly a mental picture or idea of that something of which it is the name. But it has no *assertive power*, as appears when we try in vain to make a predicate with it alone: as, "Lightning electricity." The assertive part of the predicate is supplied by the verb "is," which connects the two names, "lightning" and "electricity," in such a way as to declare that the objects named are identical. But though "is" has this *assertive power*, it has no *meaning* of its own, that is, it calls up no mental picture. The predicate gets its meaning from the idea-word "electricity."

It appears, therefore, that "is," "are," "was," "were," and the other forms of "be," are mere *instruments of assertion*, conveying in themselves, no idea at all, except in those cases in which they express existence. Meaningless themselves they are used to make predicates with words that have meanings, but cannot by themselves make assertions. They link together two different ideas in such a way as to predicate one of the other. For this reason the verb "be" is often called the **Copula** (Latin, "link"). It often resembles in force the mathematical symbol of equality or identity, "=."

The following verbs, in some of their uses, resemble "be":—

seem	become	look	sound	appear
feel	taste	smell	continue	remain

EXERCISE 19.

1. *Construct five sentences in which forms of the verb "to be" are used with assertive power only.*

2. *Construct two sentences in which forms of "to be" are used to denote existence.*

3. *Construct sentences in which the following verbs are used, like "be," to form predicates whose meaning is determined by a following word:—*

seem	become	look	appear
feel	taste	smell	remain

36. Verb Phrases.—Examine the following predicates:—

Subject.	Predicate.
Dorothy	studies. (*a*)
	does study. (*b*)
	has studied. (*c*)
	has been studying. (*d*)
	will study. (*e*)
	may be studying. (*f*)
	may have been studying. (*g*)
	should have been studying. (*h*)

Here we have eight different assertions about Dorothy. One of them contains a single asserting word, others two words, others three, still others four. All of the predicates refer to a single action, namely, Dorothy's studying; but they refer to it in different ways. Predicates (*a*) and (*b*) assert it as a customary act, with a difference in emphasis; (*c*) and (*d*) as a completed act; (*e*) as a future act; (*f*) and (*g*) as a possibility, with a difference in time; (*h*) as a duty. In other words, the eight predicates are alike in expressing a single action, denoted by

one or another form of the verb "study;" they differ in representing this action under various aspects, as the speaker happens to view it.

Now examine the predicates that contain two or more words, and see whether any one of the words can be omitted without altering or destroying the assertion. You observe that in each case every word is necessary.

Finally, consider whether the helping words "does," "has," "has been," etc., taken by themselves, are of the nature of substantives or verbs. They do not denote objects of thought; therefore they are not substantives. They do have assertive power, as in "Dorothy *does* embroidery," "She *has* a book;" therefore they are verbs.

From all this it appears that frequently, to express varying shades of thought, we employ in our predicates several words which together have the force of a single verb.

Definition.—A group of words which together form one verb is called a **Verb Phrase.**

37. Verb Phrases in Interrogative, Negative, and Emphatic Sentences.—In interrogative and negative sentences modern usage requires verb phrases. Compare, for example, the following sentences:—

Assertive: She *sings.*
Interrogative: *Does* she *sing?*
Negative: She *does* not *sing.*

Sometimes a verb phrase has the force of an emphatic affirmation, implying that the thing which is

asserted has been doubted. Compare, for example, the following sentences:—

Assertive: She *sings*.
Emphatic: She *does sing*.

EXERCISE 20.

Point out the verb phrases in the following sentences:—

1. I am reading "Ivanhoe." 2. Katherine has finished the book. 3. To-morrow I shall have finished it. 4. John has cut his finger. 5. Who will help him? 6. Swallows were twittering round the eaves of the general's headquarters. 7. Father may be in his study. 8. Carrie must have been dreaming this morning. 9. You will have paid too dear for the whistle. 10. By this time he should have learned more caution. 11. You might have told me before. 12. I did tell you. 13. A large eagle was soaring overhead. 14. Father has been writing all morning. 15. The child would play by himself for hours. 16. She would have her own way. 17. He might have been doing something useful. 18. This ring may have been worn by a Roman dandy. 19. By to-morrow I shall have had enough of this. 20. They had had a hard day.

EXERCISE 21.

Change the sentences in Exercise 17 (*page* 38) *into negative, interrogative, and emphatic form, and point out the verb phrases which you use in the new sentences.*

38. Caution.—In such sentences as "The sun is *shining*" and "The sun is *hot*," beginners often find it hard to decide at this stage of their work whether the italicized word, coming after a form of the verb "be," is or is not a part of the verb. A good working test is this: If the predicate of the sentence expresses *action*, the word in question is part of the verb. If the predicate expresses a *con-*

dition or *quality* of the subject, the word in question is not a part of the verb. For example, in the following sentences the verbs are printed in italics:—

"The sun *is shining*" (action).
"The sun *is* hot" (condition).

EXERCISE 22.

Tell whether the words printed in italics are to be viewed as parts of the verbs:—

1. The key is *lost*. 2. The key was *lost* by Bridget. 3. Tennyson is *dead*. 4. He was *buried* with solemn ceremony in Westminster Abbey. 5. I shall be *studying* Latin by that time. 6. I shall be *rested* by that time. 7. Charlie has *hurt* his ankle. 8. The ligaments are *sprained*. 9. They were *sprained* in the football game last Saturday. 10. We have been *happy* together. 11. Books are *soiled* by use. 12. These books are not *soiled*. 13. The house is *deserted*. 14. It was *deserted* by the owners two years after it was *built*. 15. The prisoners are *guilty*. 16. The sun is *bright*. 17. The stars are *shining*. 18. Dandelions are *blossoming* by the road. 19. The baby has been *crying*. 20. Ralph has been *sick*. 21. The cry was *loud*. 22. The cry was *heard* by a passer-by. 23. Were you *careful?* 24. The troops were *exhausted*. 25. They had been *marching* all night.

39. Verb Phrases Separated.—The parts of a verb phrase are often separated by other words. For example, the verb phrases in the following sentences are printed in italics:—

I *have* just *returned*.
Have you not *heard?*
I *do* not yet *know*.
Has the man in the moon *been married* indeed?

EXERCISE 23.

Point out the verb phrases in the following sentences:—

1. What did you see? 2. The leaves are slowly changing. 3. He will certainly lose his place. 4. I have not seen him yet.

5. She will sometimes lose her temper. 6. Why is he running away? 7. Have you finished your lesson? 8. We are now reading "Tom Brown's School Days." 9. Did the man in the boat see the thief? 10. May not the coat have been taken by some one else? 11. A general's orders should always be promptly obeyed. 12. He had a few days before been elected captain of the team.

40. Verbs Transitive or Intransitive.—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

John frightened Helen.
John laughed.

In the first sentence, "frightened" denotes an action which, from its nature, involves two persons: John, the doer of the action; and Helen, on whom the action falls. In other words, the action which originates with John passes over, as it were, from him to Helen, who is affected by it.

In the second sentence, "laughed" denotes an action which involves only one person. The laughing ends with John, where it began. It does not pass over to any other object. Nothing else is affected by it.

Definition.—A verb that denotes an action or feeling that passes over from the doer of the action to an object on which it falls, is called a **Transitive Verb** (Latin *transire*, "to pass over").

Definition.—A verb that denotes an action, feeling, or state that involves only the subject, is called an **Intransitive Verb.**

Verbs like "have," "own," "possess," "inherit," etc., though they do not express action or feeling, are nevertheless called transitive, because they involve two objects, the possessor and the thing possessed.

EXERCISE 24.

1. *Consider the meaning of the following verbs (as ordinarily used), and tell whether they are transitive or intransitive:—*

take	catch	hear	fall
sleep	earn	find	bark
seems	use	go	cry
tear	arise	wait	strike

2. *Construct three sentences in which you use transitive verbs not in the preceding list, and two in which you use intransitive verbs.*

41. Verbs both Transitive and Intransitive.—Compare the following sentences:—

He walked.
He walked his horse.

You observe that some verbs may in one sentence be transitive and in another intransitive.

EXERCISE 25.

Construct ten sentences, using each of the following verbs first transitively, then intransitively:—

break fly move return speak

42. Verbs Active and Passive.—Compare the following sentences:—

John frightened Helen.
Helen was frightened by John.

These sentences vary in form, but not in meaning. In both of them the verbs are transitive, because they denote action passing from one person to an-

other. But in the first sentence the verb represents the subject as *doing* the action; in the second sentence, as *receiving* it.

Definition.—A transitive verb which represents the subject as doing an action is in the **Active** form.

Definition.—A transitive verb which represents the subject as receiving an action is in the **Passive** form.

Query: Can an intransitive verb have a passive form? Give the reason for your answer.

EXERCISE 26.

Construct two sentences in which the verbs are in the active form; two in which they are in the passive form.

EXERCISE 27.

Tell whether the verbs in the following selection are in the active or the passive form:—

APPLES IN ANCIENT TIMES.

It appears that apples made a part of the food of that unknown primitive people whose traces have lately been found at the bottom of the Swiss lakes, supposed to be older than the foundation of Rome, so old that they had no metallic implements. An entire black and shriveled crab apple has been recovered from their stores. * * *

The apple tree has been celebrated by the Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, and Scandinavians. Some have thought that the first human pair were tempted by its fruit. Goddesses are fabled to have contended for it, dragons were set to watch it, and heroes were employed to pluck it.—*Thoreau:* "The History of the Apple Tree."

EXERCISE 28.

(GENERAL REVIEW.)

Point out the simple subjects and the verbs in Exercise 15 (*page* 31), *and tell whether the verbs are transitive or intransitive; if transitive, tell whether the form is active or passive.*

CHAPTER IV

OF COMPLEMENTS

In the last chapter we learned that some verbs cannot form complete predicates without the help of other words (**35, 40**). We must now look more closely at such verbs and the words which are used with them to complete the predicate.

43. Verbs of Complete Predication.—Examine the following sentences:—

Subject.	Predicate.
The wind	arose.
The lightning	flashed.
The thunder	rolled.
The rain	fell.

In each of these sentences the predicate consists of a verb which makes a complete assertion.

Definition.—A verb that by itself can form a complete predicate is called a **Verb of Complete Predication.**

44. Verbs of Incomplete Predication.—Now let us try to make assertions with the verbs "are," "was," "became," "frightened," "built," "have:" thus,

Subject.	Verb.
These men	are
Washington	was
Tennyson	became
You	frightened
The Romans	built
Battleships	have

You see at once that something is wanting. Though we have in each case put together a subject and a verb as before, we have not in these groups of words said anything, for the ideas expressed by the verbs are not complete in themselves.

Definition.—A verb that does not by itself convey a complete idea is called a **Verb of Incomplete Predication.**

45. Complements Defined. — In order to form a predicate with a verb of incomplete predication we must add a completing word: thus,

Subject.	—Predicate.—	
	Verb.	Complement.
These men	are	soldiers.
Washington	was	president.
Tennyson	became	poet-laureate.
You	frightened	me.
The Romans	built	ships.
Battleships	have	armor.

Definition.—The completing word added to a verb of incomplete predication in order to form a predicate is called a **Complement** ("completing part")

Caution.—Complements, which *must* be added to make the predicate complete, are to be carefully distinguished from words that *may* be added to make the meaning more precise. For example, in the sentence "The rain fell fast," the word "fast" is not a complement, for we should have a complete sentence without it.

46. Attribute Complements.—Are all complements of the same kind? In order to answer, let us examine some typical sentences, taking first the following:—

Subject.	Verb.	Complement.
Tabby	is	a cat.
Tabby	looks	wise.

In both of these sentences the verbs are intransitive, and the complements serve to *describe the subject*. In the first sentence the complement "cat" describes Tabby by attributing to him in a single word all the qualities or marks that distinguish cats from other objects. In the second sentence the complement "wise" describes Tabby by attributing to him a single quality, wisdom.

To understand more clearly what is meant by qualities or attributes, compare an orange and a nail. An orange is yellow, round, soft, eatable, juicy, sweet, etc. A nail is gray, thin, hard, not eatable, juiceless, tasteless, etc. These distinguishing characteristics are qualities or attributes. When we say of an object "This is an orange," or "This is a nail," we describe it by asserting of it the various attributes of oranges or of nails, as the case may be; when we say "This orange is *sweet*," or "This nail is *hard*," we describe it by noting a single attribute; when we say "This is *Tabby*," we describe it by naming it.

Definition.—A complement that describes the subject is called an **Attribute Complement.** Other examples are:—

Subject.	Verb.	Attribute Complement.
These men	are	soldiers.
Washington	was	president.
Roses	smell	sweet.
His name	is	John.

47. Object Complements. — Let us examine, now, the following sentence: —

Subject.	Verb.	Complement.
Tabby	catches	mice.

In this sentence you observe that the verb "catches" is transitive, denoting an action which involves two things, the doer of the action, and the object on which the action falls. The doer of the action is named by the subject "Tabby;" the complement "mice" names the object on which the action falls.

Definition.—A complement that denotes the object on which the action of a transitive verb falls is called an **Object Complement,** or, more briefly, an **Object.**

Since an object complement denotes the object directly affected by the action of the verb, it is often called a **Direct Object.** Other examples are: —

Subject.	Verb.	Object.
I	see	you.
I	cut	myself.
Battleships	have	armor.
The Romans	built	ships.

To the Teacher.—As all teachers of language know, the important distinction between objects and attribute complements is

a stumbling-block to many pupils. Many mistakes have been caused by the old but very misleading saying that "An object answers the question 'what?' or 'whom?' placed after the verb." The weakness of this test may be seen by applying it to the sentence, "These men are soldiers:" thus, "These men are what?" Answer, "Soldiers." But "soldiers" is not an object complement. In the following exercises the pupil should be guided by what he has learned in Sections 46 and 47.

EXERCISE 29.

Complete the following sentences by supplying appropriate complements to the verbs, and tell whether the complements which you supply are objects or attribute complements:—

1. Squirrels crack ——.
2. Grocers sell ——.
3. Lincoln became ——.
4. Lee was ——.
5. Charles saw ——.
6. The sun gives ——.
7. Columbus discovered ——.
8. Farmers raise ——.
9. The sky is ——.
10. The air grew ——.
11. The room looks ——.
12. I feel ——.

EXERCISE 30.

1. *To each of the following subjects add an appropriate predicate consisting of a verb and a complement, and tell whether the complement is an object or an attribute complement:—*

1. Hens —— ——.
2. Jewelers —— ——.
3. Cats —— ——.
4. We —— ——.
5. Birds —— ——.
6. Elephants —— ——.
7. Carpenters —— ——.
8. Monkeys —— ——.
9. Clouds —— ——.
10. Mary —— ——.
11. Soldiers —— ——.
12. Trees —— ——.

2. *Construct two sentences containing object complements; two containing attribute complements.*

EXERCISE 31.

Point out the complements in the following sentences, and tell whether they are objects or attribute complements:—

1. Tom broke a window. 2. Bruno bit the tramp. 3. Chaucer was a poet. 4. Who killed Cock Robin? 5. Who will toll the bell? 6. Saul was made king. 7. Gladstone became prime minister. 8. Some one took my bicycle. 9. Demosthenes and Cicero were orators. 10. Do you study Latin? 11. None but the brave deserve the fair. 12. My father remained secretary for the rest of his life. 13. Righteousness exalteth a nation. 14. A man's house is his castle. 15. The bird forsook her nest. 16. She looked a goddess. 17. Arnold turned traitor. 18. She turned her back. 19. Joan of Arc seemed a holy woman. 20. Sir Samuel Baker was a great hunter. 21. He killed many lions, tigers, and elephants, and innumerable smaller animals. 22. Britannia rules the waves. 23. Augustus was made emperor. 24. Comparisons are odious. 25. King Alfred was called Truth Teller. 26. Who wrote "The Star-spangled Banner?" 27. To-night no moon I see. 28. To Lord Byron Venice seemed a sea-goddess. 29. The laws of nature are the thoughts of God. 30. Washington was elected the first president of the United States. 31. The two roads run parallel. 32. The kings of Egypt are in the Bible called Pharaohs. 33. Nathan Hale died a martyr to liberty. 34. He came a foe and returned a friend. 35. Ethel grew tall, beautiful, and queenly. 36. The dove found no rest for the sole of her foot. 37. A wise son maketh a glad father. 38. A foolish son is the heaviness of his mother.

48. Objective Attribute Complements.—Examine the following groups of words:—

Subject.	Predicate.	
	Verb.	Object.
The Hebrews	made	Saul
This	made	him

In these groups of words we have subject, verb, and object; yet we do not have complete sentences. Additional words are needed, to answer the questions, "What did the Hebrews make Saul?" and "What did this make him?" The lack is supplied in the following sentences:—

Subject.	Predicate.		
	Verb.	Object.	Second Complement.
The Hebrews	made	Saul	king.
This	made	him	vain.

The function or use of the second complements, "king" and "vain," will appear if we write the sentences as follows:—

Subject.	Predicate.	
	Verb.	Object.
The Hebrews	made-king [crowned]	Saul.
This	made-vain [spoiled]	him.

From this we see that "king" and "vain" help the verb "made" to express a certain action, and at the same time they denote attributes of Saul resulting from that action.

Definition.—A word that helps a verb to express action, and at the same time denotes attributes of the object resulting from that action, is called an **Objective Attribute Complement,** or, more briefly, an **Objective Complement.**

Objective complements complete the predicate and also describe the object. Or, if you prefer, they assist the verb to express the action which falls upon the object. Other examples are:—

Subject.	Predicate.		
	Verb.	Object.	Objective Complement.
We	elected	Harry	captain.
Swinging	makes	me	giddy.
God	struck	Ananias	dead.
The Persian army	drank	the rivers	dry.
I	consider	him	honest.

EXERCISE 32.

1. *Fill the blanks with objective complements, and show that they belong both to the verb and to the object:—*

1. They named the boy ——.
2. The people made Washington ——.
3. Henry painted his house ——.
4. They called the state ——.
5. Let us appoint her ——.
6. Do you think him ——?
7. Why did you choose me ——?
8. I consider her ——.

2. *Construct three sentences containing objective complements.*

EXERCISE 33.

Point out the objective complements, and show that they belong both to the verb and to the object:—

1. Victoria made Tennyson a baron. 2. They sang themselves hoarse. 3. Tell the carpenter to plane the board smooth. 4. Cradles rock us nearer to the tomb. 5. You think him humble, but God accounts him proud. 6. We cannot pump the ocean dry. 7. Attention held them mute. 8. One touch of nature makes the whole world kin. 9. Get the horses ready immediately. 10. Time

makes the worst enemies friends. 11. Dr. Holmes called Boston the hub of the universe. 12. King George II appointed Franklin Postmaster-General of the British Colonies in America. 13. Custom renders the feelings blunt and callous. 14. Madame de Staël called architecture frozen music. 15. Cromwell made the poet Milton Secretary of State. 16. God called the light day, and the darkness he called night. 17. All Napoleon's conquests did not make him happy. 18. She carries her head high. 19. A crumb of bread thrown in jest made Prescott, the historian, blind for life. 20. Whosoever maketh himself a king speaketh against Cæsar. 21. Make the memory a storehouse, not a lumber room.

49. Complements with Passive Forms.—Compare the uses of the word "captain" in the following sentences:—

(*Active*) We elected Harry captain.
(*Passive*) Harry was elected captain.

You observe that in one sentence the verb is active, in the other it is passive, and in each "captain" expresses attributes bestowed on Harry by the election. In the first sentence, where "Harry" is an *object*, "captain" is an *objective* complement describing the object; in the second sentence, where "Harry" is the *subject*, "captain" is an *attribute* complement, describing the subject.

EXERCISE 34.

Change the following sentences into the passive form, and show the use of the italicized words in the new sentences:—

1. He kept me *waiting*.
2. This made him *angry*.
3. God called the light *day*.

4. They painted the house *green*.
5. You cannot pump the ocean *dry*.
6. Victoria made Tennyson a *baron*.
7. Perseverance keeps honor *bright*.
8. A thunderstorm often turns milk *sour*.

50. Several Complements to One Verb.—Sometimes a single verb has several complements: as,

Subject.	Verb.	Complements.
We	study	*arithmetic* and *grammar*.
Addison	was	*a gentleman* and *a scholar*.

51. Several Verbs with One Complement.—Sometimes a single complement belongs to several verbs: as,

Subject.	Verbs.	Complement.
Noble minds	*loathe* and *despise*	falsehood.

---

52. Summary of Sentence Types.—Gathering together the different kinds of sentences that we have been studying, we find nine rudimental types of the simple assertive sentence:—

(1) Dogs bark. Grace is singing. (*Intransitive verb of complete predication.*)

(2) Tabby is a cat. Alice was feeling ill. (*Intransitive verb, with attribute complement.*)

(3) John frightened Helen. Dorothy is studying arithmetic. (*Transitive verb, with object.*)

(4) The Hebrews made Saul king. Mr. Smith is painting his house yellow. (*Transitive verb, with object and objective complement.*)

(5) Harry was hurt. (*Passive verb.*)

(6) Saul was made king. (*Passive verb, with attribute complement.*)

(7) It rains. It is snowing. (*Impersonal subject.*)

(8) It is wrong to steal. ("*It*" *expletive.*)

(9) There was water in the well. ("*There*" *expletive.*)

EXERCISE 35.

Illustrate each of the types of the simple sentence with a sentence of your own.

To the Teacher.—Indirect objects, which are modifiers rather than complements, are treated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

OF MODIFIERS

FROM our previous study it is clear that the essential parts of language are **Subject, Verb,** and **Complement.** They are, as it were, the bones of every sentence, giving shape to the thought, and holding it together. But these essential parts are seldom used alone. Generally they are accompanied by expressions that, without being essential, fill out the thought and give it definiteness and accuracy, something as flesh rounds out the human form.

53. Modifiers Defined.—Many words have meanings so wide that they must be narrowed before they exactly fit our thought. For example, the word "horses" applies to all the horses in the world; but we seldom wish to speak of all horses. To bring the meaning of the word down to the measure of our thought we add to it some word, or words, by way of limitation or description: thus,

Black	
Big	
Fast	
Beautiful	
Good	
Trotting	horses.
Our	
Your	
These	
Two	
Some	
Both	

Similarly there are many varieties of the action expressed by the verb "went:" as,

He went	slowly.
	cheerfully.
	fast.
	there.
	before.
	again.
	soon.
	immediately.
	yesterday.
	twice.
	little.
	often.

Often we use several limiting or describing words: as,

Your beautiful black trotting horses.

He *often* went *there before.*

Definition.—A word joined to some part of the sentence to qualify or limit the meaning is called a **Modifier.**

Modifiers may be attached to any or all of the principal parts of a sentence: as,

Modified Subject.		Modified Verb.		Modified Complement.	
The	boys	yesterday	found	some	apples.
Some		to-day		many	
These		often		twelve	
Five		never		big	
Little		there		small	
Big		again		rosy	
Spanish		once		sweet	
American		seldom		sour	
Smith's		quickly		ripe	
Our		surely		green	

EXERCISE 36.

Join appropriate modifiers to the following words:—

1. —— oranges.
2. —— music.
3. —— clouds.
4. —— roses.
5. —— wind.
6. Lie ——.
7. Run ——.
8. Think ——.
9. Sit ——.
10. —— —— balls.
11. —— —— churches.
12. —— —— chair.
13. —— —— —— houses.
14. —— —— —— candy.
15. —— —— —— dogs.
16. Come —— ——.
17. Go —— ——.
18. Stay —— ——.
19. Step —— ——.
20. Rise —— ——.
21. Sleep —— ——.
22. Speak —— and ——.
23. Write —— and ——.
24. Work —— ——.

54. Caution.—Care must be taken not to confound modifiers of the verb with complements. A *modifier* shows the time, place, manner, or degree of the action, being, or state expressed by the verb. An *object complement* denotes the object on which the action expressed by the verb falls; an *attribute complement* points back to the subject, mentioning one or more of its attributes.

EXERCISE 37.

In the following sentences tell whether the italicized words are objects, attribute complements, or modifiers of the verb:—

1. Father called *again*. 2. Some savages are *cannibals*. 3. The regiment marched *forth*. 4. Gehazi went out a *leper*. 5. She sang a *ballad*. 6. Bismarck was a *German*. 7. She sang *well*. 8. The ship sailed *yesterday*. 9. The policeman looked *surly*. 10. Lot's wife looked *back*. 11. They went *below*. 12. The deacon's horse ran a *race*. 13. The deacon's horse ran *away*. 14. Vesuvius is a

volcano. 15. Helen wrote *yesterday.* 16. She wrote a *composition.* 17. She writes *well.* 18. Mother is sewing *late to-night.* 19. She is sewing my *dress.* 20. To-morrow will be *Saturday.* 21. The man turned his *head.* 22. The men turned *pirates.* 23. The man turned *round.* 24. He walked a *mile.* 25. He walked his *horse.* 26. The Romans were great *soldiers.* 27. Who fought *there?* 28. Who fought *King Richard?* 29. Who fought *best?* 30. The ship struck a *rock.* 31. The ship struck *head-on.*

EXERCISE 38.

Separate the following sentences into simple subject, verb, complements, and modifiers:—

1. Have you much time?

Model for Oral Exercise.—An interrogative sentence. The subject is "you," unmodified. The predicate is "have much time," consisting of the verb "have" and the object "time," which is modified by "much."

Model for Written Exercise.—

V.	S.	O.
Have	you	time?
		much

2. Where is your hat? 3. Every dog has his day. 4. Many hands make light work. 5. Little strokes fell great oaks. 6. An undevout astronomer is mad. 7. When shall I see you again? 8. The postman comes twice daily. 9. We often meet nowadays; sometimes we exchange a few words; we seldom converse long. 10. Here he comes. 11. They walked up and down. 12. Where did you find those apples? 13. I have nearly finished my work. 14. We shall surely expect you to-morrow. 15. Perhaps your sister will come too. 16. To and fro and in and out the wan stars danced between. 17. Why did you come here to-day? 18. Slowly and sadly we laid him down. 19. Meanwhile we did our nightly chores. 20. The old horse thrust his long head out. 21. This good news arrived yesterday. 22. The first carriage contained four persons. 23. A large black dog carried the basket.

24. The plowman homeward plods his weary way. 25. The cold November rain is falling dismally. 26. The noblest mind the best contentment has.

27. Gayly the troubadour
Touched his guitar.

28. The cock his crested helmet bent
And down his querulous challenge sent.

55. Modifying Phrases and Clauses.—Compare the modifiers in the following expressions:—

(1) *Blue-eyed* girls.

(2) Girls *with blue eyes.*

(3) Girls *whose eyes are blue.*

In (1) the modifier of "girls" is a single word ("blue-eyed"); in (2) it is a group of words ("with blue eyes") having the force of a single word; in (3) it is a group of words having the force of a single word, and containing a subject ("whose eyes") and a predicate ("are blue").

Definition.—A group of words used as a single word, and containing neither subject nor predicate, is called a **Phrase.**

Other examples of modifying phrases are:—

Phrase.
He stayed *at home.*

Phrase.
Stunned by the sound, he lay unconscious.

Phrase.
Having finished his work, John went home.

Definition.—A group of words containing a subject and a predicate, and used like a single word as part of a sentence, is called a **Clause.**

Other examples of clauses are:—

Clause.
If it rains, we cannot go.

Clause.
They started *when the sun rose.*

Clause.
Whether he will come is uncertain.

Clause. Clause.
He *that is giddy* thinks *the world turns round.*

Phrases and clauses are *alike* in being groups of words used as single words. They *differ* in this: a clause contains a subject and a predicate, a phrase does not.

To the Teacher.—Phrases and clauses used as substantives are treated separately in Chapter VI.

EXERCISE 39.

1. *Narrow the meaning of the following words by adding to them modifying phrases:—*

1. Clouds ——.
2. A ride ——.
3. A house ——.
4. Boats ——.
5. News ——.
6. Wind ——.
7. He went ——.
8. We walked ——.
9. Sit ——.
10. Write ——.
11. The fox ran ——.
12. Ships sail ——.

2. *Construct four sentences containing modifying phrases.*

EXERCISE 40.

1. *Narrow the meaning of the following words by adding to them modifying clauses, and point out the subject and the predicate in each clause:—*

1. Men ——.
2. The pictures ——.
3. Children ——.
4. The train ——.
5. The book ——.
6. The States ——.
7. Those ——.
8. He came ——.
9. Stay ——.
10. Make hay ——.
11. The ground is wet ——.
12. The brook —— is deep.

2. *Construct four sentences containing modifying clauses.*

EXERCISE 41.

1. *Construct a sentence in which the subject is modified by single words; one in which it is modified by a phrase; one in which it is modified by a clause.*

2. *Construct a sentence in which the verb is modified by single words; one in which it is modified by a phrase; one in which it is modified by a clause.*

EXERCISE 42.

To the Teacher.—This formal exercise is intended only for pupils who are slow to distinguish phrases and clauses. Ordinarily it may be omitted.

Tell whether the following groups of words are phrases or clauses:—

1. How he got home. 2. Whether he is ready. 3. To tell the truth. 4. Doomed for a certain time to walk the night. 5. Standing by the door. 6. Where Shakspere was born. 7. Before leaving the city. 8. Before we leave the city. 9. Busied with public affairs. 10. That you have wronged me. 11. Ignorant of his duty. 12. Having made his fortune. 13. Made by Indians. 14. Till on dry land he lights. 15. Having struck twelve. 16. Where the gray birches wave. 17. The train having started. 18. To better his condition. 19. Darkness coming on. 20. Where'er the navy spreads her canvas wings. 21. The left wing having been repulsed. 22. As soon as the bridge was lowered. 23. The bridge having been lowered. 24. Having lowered the bridge. 25. Before he had lowered the bridge.

EXERCISE 43.

In the following sentences point out the modifying phrases, and tell what they modify :—

1. We sped the time with stories old.
2. A basket of fruit stood on the table.
3. Hearing a shout, she ran to the door.
4. The borrower is servant to the lender.
5. We saw a brick schoolhouse standing by the road.
6. Surrounded by familiar faces, she breathed freely again.
7. A comfortable old age is the reward of a well-spent youth.
8. Pins were first made by machinery in New York, in 1835.
9. The author of " The eve of St. Agnes " was born in a stable.
10. The first submarine telegraph was laid in New York harbor, in 1842.
11. Glass windows were introduced into England in the eighth century.
12. Icebergs fall into the ocean from Arctic glaciers, and drift slowly toward the south.
13. The winter palace of the Czar of Russia is lighted by twelve thousand electric lamps.
14. General Toral, hemmed in by the American army, surrendered Santiago to General Shafter.
15. Flocks of birds, wheeling round the lighthouse and blinded by the light, dashed themselves to death against the glass.
16. Unwarmed by any sunset light
    The gray day darkened into night.
17. We piled with care our nightly stack
    Of wood against the chimney back.
18. The moon, above the eastern wood,
    Shone at its full.
19. Down in the green and shady bed
    A modest violet grew.
20. Two robin redbreasts built their nest
    Within a hollow tree.

EXERCISE 44.

In the following sentences pick out the modifying clauses, tell what they modify, and give the subject and the predicate of each clause :—

1. He lay where he fell.
2. A glutton lives that he may eat.
3. Where the bee sucks, there suck I.
4. Just as I awoke, the clock struck six.
5. The evil that men do lives after them.
6. God helps those who help themselves.
7. Blessed is he that considereth the poor.
8. The task which you have to do is easy.
9. A temperate man eats that he may live.
10. Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.
11. They that govern most make least noise.
12. Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.
13. My eyes make pictures when they are shut.
14. The city to which I refer is Constantinople.
15. When the heart stops beating, life stops too.
16. People who live in glass houses must not throw stones.
17. Rex found a young robin, which had fallen from its nest.
18. The average age of those who enter college is seventeen.
19. The man who wanted to see you went away an hour ago.
20. The fur which now warms a monarch once warmed a bear.
21. He that loses his conscience has nothing left that is worth keeping.
22. Where the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together.
23. Kindness is the golden chain by which society is bound together.
24. The moon, that once was round and full,
    Is now a silver boat.

25. My heart leaps up when I behold
A rainbow in the sky.

26. He who ascends to mountain tops shall find
The loftiest peaks most wrapped in clouds and snow.

56. Modifying Clauses Classified.—The principal ideas expressed by modifying clauses are the following:—

(1) DESCRIPTION: Water *that is stagnant* is unwholesome.

(2) TIME: He started *when the sun rose.*

(3) PLACE: *Wherever I went* was my poor dog Tray.

(4) MANNER: He did *as he was told.*

(5) CONDITION: Rob will go *if Ethel goes.*

(6) CONCESSION: *Though pain is not the greatest evil,* yet it is an evil.

(7) CAUSE: I came *because you called me.*

(8) PURPOSE: A glutton lives *that he may eat.*

(9) DEGREE: Ralph is stronger *than Katherine* [*is*].

(10) RESULT: I am so tired *that I cannot stand.*

EXERCISE 45.

Tell what idea is expressed by each of the modifying clauses in Exercise 44.

57. Indirect Objects.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) Jack gave a penny.

(*b*) Jack gave *me* a penny.

In each of these sentences the word "penny" is an object complement, indispensable to the predicate. Giving, however, involves a receiver as well as a thing given, and in the second sentence this

receiver is indicated by the single word "me," placed immediately after the verb. But "me" is less closely related to the verb than "penny," because (1) it is not indispensable, and (2) if we change its place, we must indicate its relation by prefixing "to:" as, "Jack gave a penny *to me*." Moreover, the action of giving reaches the receiver only indirectly through the thing given. "Me" in sentence (*b*) is therefore called an **Indirect Object,** in distinction from "penny," which is called the **Direct Object.** Other examples are:—

Mother bought *Alice* a doll.

She made *Ruth* a new dress.

Definition.—A word used to denote the object indirectly affected by the action of a verb is called an **Indirect Object.**

The indirect object of a verb denotes the object *to* or *for* whom the action is performed. But not every word answering the question "to whom or what?" or "for whom or what?" is an indirect object. For example, the italicized words in the following sentence are *not* indirect objects: "Mother went to *town* and bought me a doll for *a dollar*."

The verb "ask" takes an indirect object in a relation sometimes expressed by "of:" as, "He asked *me* a question;" "He asked a question *of me*."

EXERCISE 46.

1. *With the following verbs form ten sentences, each containing an indirect object:—*

ask	forgive	make	promise	teach
bring	get	pay	send	tell

2. *Change your sentences so that indirect objects that were single words shall now be expressed by phrases.*

EXERCISE 47.

Point out the indirect objects in the following sentences:—

1. Will you do me a favor?
2. He paid the men their wages.
3. Give me liberty, or give me death.
4. He wrought the castle much annoy.
5. Riches certainly make themselves wings.
6. Give every man thy ear, but few thy voice.
7. Nature teaches beasts to know their friends.
8. Owe no man anything, but to love one another.
9. The God who gave us life gave us liberty at the same time.
10. If thine enemy hunger, feed him; if he thirst, give him drink.
11. Build thee more stately mansions, O my soul, as the swift seasons roll.

58. Indirect Objects in Passive Sentences.— When sentences containing a direct and an indirect object are turned into the passive form, it would seem that the direct object should become the subject of the passive verb, because it denotes the object which directly receives the action expressed by the verb; and that the indirect object should remain unchanged: thus,

Ind. Obj.
(*Active*) He handed *her* a chair.

Ind. Obj.
(*Passive*) A chair was handed *her*.

As a matter of fact, however, not the direct object, but the indirect is often made the subject of the passive verb: as,

She was handed a chair.

This cannot be logically explained, but it is accepted as good English. "Chair" is for convenience called a **Retained Object.**

EXERCISE 48.

Change the following sentences into the passive form:—

1. Harry gave me a penny.
2. She promised me a book.
3. I gave him a receipt in full.
4. Mother bought Alice a doll.
5. He paid the men their wages.
6. He wrought the castle much annoy.
7. Nature teaches beasts to know their friends.
8. He told them many strange stories of the sea.

59. Appositives.—Compare the following sentences:—

Paul was beheaded in the reign of Nero.

Paul, *the apostle*, was beheaded in the reign of Nero, *emperor of Rome.*

In the second sentence, you observe, the meaning of "Paul" and of "Nero" is made clear by setting next to each of them a modifier consisting of another name for the same person or thing.

Definition.—A name set next to another name by way of explanation, and denoting the same per-

son or thing, is called an **Appositive** (Latin, "set next to").

The two names set next to each other are said to be in **Apposition.**

If an appositive is accompanied by adjuncts, it is usually set off by commas.

In the definition of an appositive, the words "denoting the same person or thing" are needed to distinguish an appositive from a possessive modifier, like "John's" in the expression "John's hat." In this expression the words are not in apposition because they do not denote the same person or thing.

EXERCISE 49.

In the following sentences point out the words in apposition:—

1. Hail, holy light! offspring of heav'n first-born.
2. The meek-ey'd Morn appears, mother of dews.
3. Come, gentle Spring! ethereal Mildness! come.
4. The postman comes, the herald of a noisy world.
5. Labor to keep alive in your breast that little spark of celestial fire—conscience.
6. Let not women's weapons, water drops,
   Stain my man's cheeks!
7. A famous man is Robin Hood,
   The English ballad singer's joy.
8. Aurora now, fair daughter of the dawn,
   Sprinkled with rosy light the dewy lawn.
9. The spacious firmament on high,
   With all the blue ethereal sky,
   And spangled heavens, a shining frame,
   Their great Original proclaim.
10. She dwelt among the untrodden ways
    Beside the springs of Dove—
    A maid whom there were none to praise
    And very few to love.

11. In Xanadu did Kubla Khan
A stately pleasure-dome decree,
Where Alph, the sacred river, ran
Through caverns measureless to man
Down to a sunless sea.

12. Our fathers' God, to thee,
Author of liberty,
To thee I sing;
Long may our land be bright
With freedom's holy light;
Protect us by thy might,
Great God, our King!

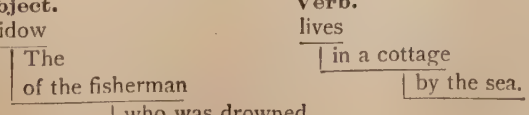
EXERCISE 50.

Construct four sentences containing appositives.

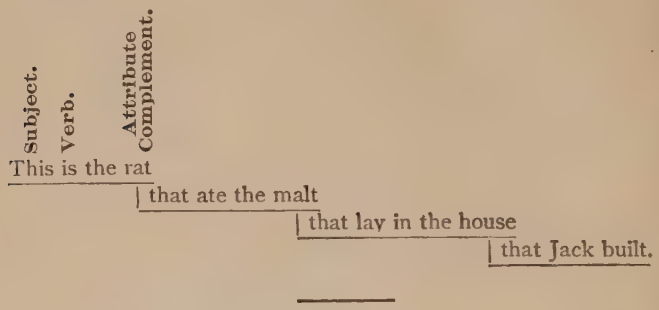
60. Modifiers of Modifiers.—Thus far we have considered only modifiers of subject, verb, and complement. But modifiers are themselves often modified, and we find phrases attached to phrases, clauses attached to clauses. Thus:—

(*a*) Fanny sings very well.

(*b*) The widow of the fisherman who was drowned lives in a cottage by the sea.



(*c*) This is the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.



61. Analysis.—When, in order to show its structure, we separate a sentence into its parts, we are said to **Analyze** it.

Definition.—The process of separating a sentence into its parts in order to show its structure is called **Analysis** (Greek, "a taking apart").

In order to analyze a sentence we must tell—

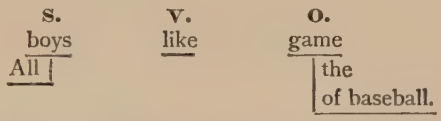
(1) The kind of sentence.
(2) The complete subject.
(3) The predicate.
(4) The simple subject.
(5) The verb.
(6) The complement, if any.
(7) The modifiers of subject, verb, and complement.
(8) The subordinate modifiers.

62. Diagrams.—It is sometimes convenient, as a time-saving device, to show the fundamental structure of a sentence by means of a graphic represen-

tation called a **Diagram.** For example, the structure of the sentence,

All boys like the game of baseball,

may be exhibited thus:—

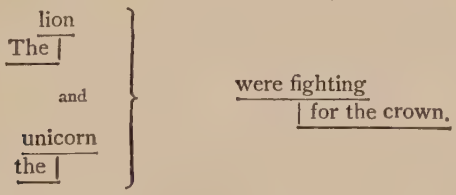


This diagram shows at a glance that the sentence has three principal parts, and that the subject has one modifier, the object two.

Similarly, the structure of the sentence,

The lion and the unicorn
Were fighting for the crown,

may be shown thus:—



Phrases and clauses, being used with the force of single words, are best treated as units and not broken up into parts.

For other examples see **60.**

To the Teacher.—The chief value of the diagram is that it enables the teacher to test a pupil's insight into sentence-structure with a minimum of time and effort. The chief objection to it is that, being mechanical, it is unnatural as an expression of logical relations, reducing the beautiful subtleties of language to hard and fast lines, wresting the words out of their order, and fostering in

the pupil mechanical ideas of the English sentence. Used occasionally and in moderation, it is a help; but it should not attempt to go beyond the graphic separation of subject, verb, complements, and modifiers; and it should never be allowed to usurp the place of oral analysis, which remains the chief instrument of the teacher for developing quick perception and easy expression.

The author doubts the expediency of ever extending the use of the diagram beyond the expression of the fundamental *logical* structure of the sentence. To attempt to show graphically all *grammatical* relations leads to niceties of detail in the diagram which turn it into a puzzle requiring a key. When a pupil becomes concerned not so much with the use of a word as with how to express that use graphically, the purpose of the diagram has become perverted, and the real object of analysis is lost sight of.

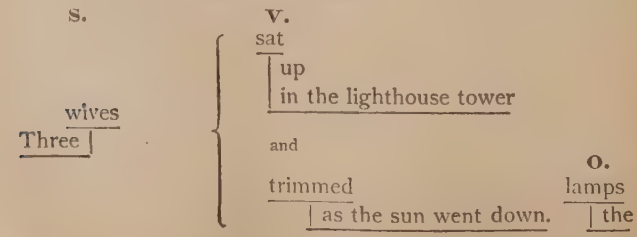
EXERCISE 51.

Analyze the following sentences:—

1. Three wives sat up in the lighthouse tower
   And trimmed the lamps as the sun went down.

Model for Oral Analysis.—The subject is "Three wives." There are two predicates, "sat up in the lighthouse tower" and "trimmed the lamps as the sun went down." The simple subject is "wives," modified by "three." The verb in the first predicate is "sat," a verb of complete predication, modified by "up" and the phrase "in the lighthouse tower." In the second predicate the verb is "trimmed," with "lamps" as object complement. "Trimmed" is modified by the time clause "as the sun went down," and "lamps" is modified by "the."

Model for Written Analysis.—



2. Bright the lamps shone o'er fair women and brave men.

3. Animals that live in the Arctic regions among snow and ice have white fur.

4. Near the "bonny Doon" stands the little clay-built cottage in which Robert Burns was born.

5. Rip Van Winkle assisted at the children's sports, made their playthings, and told them long stories of ghosts, witches, and Indians.

6. Close beside her, faintly moaning, fair and young, a soldier lay,
Torn with shot and pierced with lances, bleeding slow his life away.

7. Between the andirons' straggling feet
The mug of cider simmered slow.

8. The house dog on his paws outspread
Laid to the fire his drowsy head.

9. Sharply clashing horn on horn,
Impatient down the stanchion rows
The cattle shake their walnut bows.

10. A little nonsense now and then
Is relished by the wisest men.

11. I stood on the bridge at midnight,
As the clocks were striking the hour.

12. Forth into the forest straightway
All alone walked Hiawatha
Proudly, with his bows and arrows.

13. Whene'er a noble deed is wrought,
Whene'er is spoken a noble thought,
Our hearts, in glad surprise,
To higher levels rise.

14. In my study I see in the lamplight,
Descending the broad hall stair,
Grave Alice and laughing Allegra
And Edith with golden hair.

EXERCISE 52.

(General Review.)

Analyze the following sentences :—

1. I came to a shady spot where the grass was wet with the dew that still lay upon it.

Model for Oral Analysis.—The subject of this sentence is "I," without adjuncts. The predicate is the rest of the sentence. The principal verb in the predicate is "came," a verb of complete predication, modified by the phrase "to a shady spot." "Spot" is modified by "a" and "shady" and the clause of place, "where the grass was wet," in which "the grass" is the subject, "was" is the verb, and "wet" is an attribute complement. "Wet" is modified by the phrase "with the dew." "Dew" is modified by "the" and the descriptive clause "that still lay upon it," in which "that" is the subject and "lay" is the verb, modified by "still" and the phrase "upon it."

Model for Written Analysis.—

S. V.

I came

| to a shady spot

| where the grass was wet

| with the dew

| that, etc.

2. Nearly all dogs like the water.

3. My bosom's lord sits lightly in his throne.

4. The man in the moon came down too soon.

5. Remember now thy Creator in the days of thy youth.

6. Trust that man in nothing who has not a conscience in everything.

7. When I look upon the tombs of the great every emotion of envy dies in me.

8. Pompeii was suddenly buried beneath a shower of ashes from Mount Vesuvius.

9. People will not look forward to posterity who never look backward to their ancestors.

10. Books that you may carry to the fire and hold readily in your hand are the most useful after all.

11. The deep cave among the rocks on the hillside was long the secret home of a family of foxes.

12. In Holland the stork is protected by law, because it eats the frogs and worms that would injure the dikes.

13. The water of our brook, after flowing under the bridge and through the meadow, falls over little precipices of rock till it reaches the level of the lake, fifty feet below.

14. When he was a boy, Franklin, who afterward became a distinguished statesman and philosopher, learned his trade in the printing office of his brother, who published a paper in Boston.

15. A king sat on the rocky brow
Which looks o'er sea-born Salamis.

16. At the doorway of his wigwam
Sat the ancient Arrow-maker,
In the land of the Dacotahs,
Making arrowheads of jasper.

17. At his side, in all her beauty,
Sat the lovely Minnehaha,
Plaiting mats of flags and rushes.

18. Soon o'er the yellow fields, in silent and mournful procession,
Came from the neighboring hamlets and farms the Acadian women,
Driving in ponderous wains their household goods to the seashore.

19. In the Old Colony days, in Plymouth, the land of the Pilgrims,
To and fro in a room of his simple and primitive dwelling,
Clad in doublet and hose, and boots of Cordovan leather,
Strode, with a martial air, Miles Standish, the Puritan captain,

20. Shut in from all the world without,
We sat the clean-winged hearth about,
Content to let the north wind roar
In baffled rage at pane and door,
While the red logs before us beat
The frost line back with tropic heat.

21. That orbed maiden with white fire laden,
Whom mortals call the moon,
Glides glimmering o'er my[1] fleece-like floor,
By the midnight breezes strewn.

22. Hearing the Imperial name
Coupled with these words of malice,
Half in anger, half in shame,
Forth the great campaigner came
Slowly from his canvas palace.

23. When I see kings lying by those who deposed them; when I consider rival wits placed side by side, or the holy men that divided the world with their contests and disputes, I reflect with sorrow and astonishment on the little competitions, factions, and debates of mankind.—*Addison:* "Visit to Westminster Abbey."

[1] A cloud is supposed to be speaking.

CHAPTER VI

OF SUBSTANTIVE PHRASES AND CLAUSES

In the last chapter we learned (**55**) that groups of words are often used with the force of single words, and that such groups are **Phrases** if they contain neither subject nor predicate, **Clauses** if they do contain a subject and a predicate. The illustrative sentences and the exercises contained many such groups used as *modifiers*. We are now to learn that phrases and clauses are also used as *substantives*.

63. Phrases as Subjects.—Examine the subject of each of the following sentences, and, if possible, pick out the single word that may be used as the simple or bare subject:—

Subject.	Verb.	Complement.
Over the fence	is	out.
To jump across the chasm	was	impossible.
Tom's being there	saved	the house.

You observe that no single word can be taken as the bare subject. The assertion is made about the idea expressed by the entire phrase used as a substantive.

To the Teacher.—The internal structure of substantive phrases is discussed in Part II.

EXERCISE 53.

Construct assertions about the ideas expressed by the following phrases:—

1. To die for one's country ——.
2. Skating on the pond ——.
3. Writing compositions ——.
4. Playing football ——.
5. To write a story ——.
6. Chopping wood ——.
7. To find a horseshoe ——.
8. To tell a lie ——.

EXERCISE 54.

Fill the blanks with phrases used as subjects:—

1. —— is dishonorable.
2. —— annoys me.
3. —— is bad luck.
4. —— is hard work.
5. —— was great fun.
6. —— would make you laugh.
7. —— is impossible.
8. Does —— make you tired?

64. Phrases as Complements.—Examine each of the following complements, and determine whether any single word may be taken as the bare complement:—

Subject.	Verb.	Object Complement.
He	commanded	the bridge to be lowered.
I	saw	him do it.

Subject.	Verb.	Attribute Complement.
That	is	out of bounds.
They	were	in no danger.

Subject.	Verb.	Object.	Objective Complement.
They	danced	themselves	out of breath.
They	kept	us	waiting an hour.

From this it is clear that phrases are often used substantively as complements.

EXERCISE 55.

Complete the following sentences by adding ideas expressed by phrases, and tell whether the phrases are used as objects, attribute complements, or objective complements :—

1. Our house is ——.
2. We intend ——.
3. He made us ——.
4. He seemed ——.
5. What I want is ——.
6. Washington forced the British ——.
7. The Alps are ——.
8. I like ——.

EXERCISE 56.

In the following sentences point out the phrases, and tell how they are used :—

1. Study to be quiet.
2. The vessels were of oak.
3. Out of sight is out of mind.
4. Out of debt is out of misery.
5. I found the book growing dull.
6. I did not enjoy crossing the ocean.
7. The price of wisdom is above rubies.
8. A man should learn to govern himself.
9. To break a promise is a breach of honor.
10. Giving to the poor is lending to the Lord.
11. England expects every man to do his duty.
12. This morning Carrie seemed in good spirits.
13. Men called the first steamboat "Fulton's Folly."
14. Your writing that letter so neatly secured the position.
15. The true university of these days is a collection of books.
16. The greatest of faults, I should say, is to be conscious of none.
17. Being in a ship is being in a jail, with the chance of being drowned.

18. To be conscious that you are ignorant is a great step toward knowledge.

19. The winds and waves are always on the side of the ablest navigators.

20. The only argument available with an east wind is to put on your overcoat.

21. To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace.

22. Early to bed, and early to rise,
Makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise.

23. Immodest words admit of no defense,
For want of decency is want of sense.

EXERCISE 57.

Write a sentence containing a phrase used as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as objective complement.

65. Clauses as Subjects.—Examine the following sentences, and consider whether any single word can be named as the bare subject.

Consider, also, whether the groups of words expressing the subject are phrases or clauses. Give the reason for your answer:—

Subject.	Predicate.
What they say	is not to the point.
That you have wronged me	doth appear in this.
Whether I can go	is uncertain.

From this it is clear that a clause may be used substantively as the subject of a sentence.

EXERCISE 58.

Make assertions about the ideas expressed by the following clauses :—

1. What he wants ——.
2. Whether you go or stay ——.
3. That two and two make four ——.
4. Whom it belongs to ——.
5. What he does ——.
6. Where he went ——.
7. When we shall start ——.
8. "Charge for the guns" ——.

EXERCISE 59.

Fill the blanks with clauses used as subjects :—

1. —— is unknown.
2. —— will never be discovered.
3. —— pleases me.
4. —— is doubtful.
5. —— is of no importance.
6. —— was foretold.
7. —— were his words.
8. —— has been proved.

EXERCISE 60.

Review Exercise 11 (*page* 29), *and tell whether the subjects are phrases or clauses.*

66. Clauses as Complements.—Examine the following sentences, and consider whether any single word can be named as the complement. Consider, also, whether the groups of words expressing the complementary idea are phrases or clauses :—

Subject.	Verb.	Object.
Galileo	taught	that the earth moves.
He	asked	who I was.
She	showed	where she had put it.
I	doubt	whether I can go.

Subject.	Verb.	Attribute Complement.
This	is	what I want.
Her chief fault	was	that she would not read.
He	seemed	what he pretended to be.
This	is	where the arbutus grows.

From this it is clear that clauses may be used substantively as object or attribute complements.

EXERCISE 61.

Fill the blanks with clauses used as complements, and tell whether they are used as objects or attribute complements :—

1. Do you know ——?
2. I fear ——.
3. My hope is ——.
4. We saw ——.
5. His cry was ——.
6. Have you heard ——?
7. The question is ——.
8. Things are seldom ——.
9. Let us ask ——.
10. I think ——.

67. Clauses as Appositives.—Examine the following sentence:—

The Arabs have a superstition *that the stork has a human heart.*

Here the clause "that the stork has a human heart" is in apposition (59) with the word "superstition."

From this we see that clauses may be used substantively as appositives.

EXERCISE 62.

Fill the blanks with clauses in apposition with the italicized words :—

1. The *report* —— is untrue.
2. The *news* —— has just come.
3. We have just learned the *fact* ——.
4. I cherish the *hope* ——.
5. He made the *assertion* ——.

EXERCISE 63.

Point out the appositives in the following sentences:—

1. The popular idea that water is purified by freezing is a mistake.

2. Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends.

3. Dr. Watts's saying that birds in their little nests agree is far from being true.

4. The proverb "Never cross a bridge till you come to it" is old and of excellent wit.

5. Books have this advantage over travel, that they convey information from remote times.

6. It was a maxim with Bentley that no man was ever written out of reputation but by himself.

7. The Declaration of Independence announced the truth that all power comes from the people.

8. In the armory of Venice is this inscription: "Happy is that city which in time of peace thinks of war."

9. The theory that the earth revolves around the sun was not generally accepted till after the invention of the telescope.

10. Know then this truth (enough for man to know),—
"Virtue alone is happiness below."

EXERCISE 64.

Write a sentence containing a substantive clause used as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as an appositive.

EXERCISE 65.

In the following sentences point out the clauses, and tell how they are used.—

1. Ask if you may go too.
2. Life is what we make it.
3. What he does is well done.
4. What you want is not here.
5. Take whichever you choose.
6. Show us where you found it.
7. This is not what I asked for.
8. What he promises, he will do.
9. No one can tell how this will end.
10. A servant must do what he is told.
11. No man can lose what he never had.
12. "I am going a-milking, sir," she said.
13. Whether you go or stay is of little account.
14. The village oil declared how much he knew.
15. He acknowledged that he had made a mistake.
16. Whatever is worth doing at all, is worth doing well.
17. Reputation is what we seem; character is what we are.
18. Lawrence's dying words were: "Don't give up the ship."
19. That the earth is round is proved by the shape of its shadow.
20. Columbus did not know that he had discovered a continent.
21. What a man puts into his head cannot be stolen from him.
22. The war cry of the Crusaders was, "It is the will of God!"
23. "Where is Abel, thy brother?" was God's question to guilty Cain.

24. One of the many objections to betting is that it demoralizes the character.

25. The world will not inquire who you are. It will ask, "What can you do?"

26. Philosophers are still debating whether the will has any control over dreams.

27. The explanation of the apparent daily motion of the sun and stars is that the earth spins like a top.

28. I dreamt that I dwelt in marble halls,
With vassals and serfs at my side.

To the Teacher.—Substantive phrases and clauses used as the objects of prepositions are treated in Part II.

CHAPTER VII

OF INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS

68. Independent Elements Defined.—Examine the following sentence:—

I am going a-milking, sir.

Here, you observe, the subject is "I;" the predicate is "am going a-milking." The word "sir" belongs neither to the subject nor to the predicate, and therefore is not really a part of the sentence. It is merely attached to the sentence to show to whom it is addressed.

Definition.—A word or group of words attached to a sentence without forming a grammatical part of it is called an **Independent Element.**

69. Vocatives.—Independent elements are of several kinds. In "I am going a-milking, sir," the independent element "sir" indicates the person to whom the sentence is addressed.

Definition.—A word used to call to or indicate the person or thing addressed is called a **Vocative** (Latin *voco*, "I call").

Care must be taken not to confound vocatives with the subjects of imperative sentences. In "Come on, boys," "boys" is a vocative. The subject of the command "come on" is omitted as usual; if expressed, it would be "you:" as, "Come [you] on, boys."

EXERCISE 66.

Point out the vocative words in the following sentences:—

1. Drink, pretty creature, drink.
2. Give me of your balm, O fir tree.
3. Mr. President, my object is peace.
4. Thou, too, sail on, O ship of State.
5. Ye crags and peaks, I'm with you once again.
6. Wave your tops, ye pines, in sign of worship.
7. Roll on, thou dark and deep blue ocean, roll!
8. Sir, I would rather be right than be president.
9. My son, if sinners entice thee, consent thou not.
10. There are more things in heaven and earth, Horatio,
    Than are dreamt of in your philosophy.
11. To arms! To arms! Sir Consul,
    Lars Porsena is here.

70. Exclamations.—Examine the following sentence:—

What! are you going?

Here the subject is "you;" the predicate is "are going." "What!" is an independent word attached to the sentence as an outcry or sudden expression of feeling.

Definition.—A word or group of words used as an outcry or sudden expression of feeling is called an **Exclamation.**

EXERCISE 67.

Point out all the independent elements in the following sentences, and tell whether they are vocatives or exclamations:—

1. Oh, hurry, hurry!
2. Well, let us try it.
3. Why, that is strange!
4. The boy, oh, where was he?
5. Poor man! he never came back.
6. Mortimer! who talks of Mortimer?
7. Ba, ba, black sheep, have you any wool?
8. Ha! laugh'st thou, Lochiel, my vision to scorn?
9. Alas! poor creature! how she must have suffered!
10. Ay me! what perils do environ
    The man that meddles with cold iron!

71. Parenthetical Expressions.—Examine the following sentence:—

This, to tell the truth, was a mistake.

Here the subject is "This;" the predicate is "was a mistake." "To tell the truth" is a phrase, forming no part of the sentence (which is complete without it), but attached to it as a sort of comment or side remark.

Definition.—A phrase or a clause attached to a sentence as a sort of side remark or comment is called **Parenthetical** (Greek, "put in beside").

EXERCISE 68.

Pick out the parenthetical expressions in the following sentences:—

1. At all events, he did his best.
2. In fact, there was nothing else to do.
3. Considering his age, he did very well.
4. I felt, to say the least, a little nervous.
5. So far as I can see, there is nothing more to do.
6. Her conduct, generally speaking, was admirable.
7. Properly speaking, there is no such thing as luck.
8. The ship leaped, as it were, from billow to billow.
9. To speak plainly, your manner was somewhat rude.

10. To the best of my recollection, she was not there.

11. Let there be no strife, I pray thee, between thee and me.

12. The army of Xerxes, to put it in round numbers, comprised 2,500,000 persons.

72. Pleonasm.—Examine the following sentence:—

Thy rod and thy staff, they comfort me.

Here the words "Thy rod and thy staff" name the subject of the thought, but are independent of the sentence "they comfort me," which is complete in itself, the grammatical subject being "they" and the predicate "comfort me." It is as if we used two subjects denoting the same thing: thus,

Thy rod and thy staff
They } comfort me.

Definition.—The use of more words than are needed is called **Pleonasm** ("more than enough").

Other examples of pleonasm are:—

The smith, a mighty man is he.

My banks, they are furnished with bees.

This construction was once very good English, but it is now uncommon, and as a rule should not be imitated.

73. Punctuation of Independent Elements.—It is customary to separate independent elements from the rest of the sentence by commas or (in the case of exclamations) by exclamation points.

EXERCISE 69.

Write two sentences of your own with vocatives attached; two with exclamations; two with parenthetical expressions.

74. Summary of the Parts of a Sentence.—The parts of a sentence, which we have now studied, may be summarized as follows:—

- SENTENCE (16)
  - SUBJECT (23)
    - Word (32).
    - Phrase (63).
    - Clause (65).
  - VERB (32) or VERB PHRASE (36)
    - *Intransitive* (40)
      - Complete predication (43).
      - Copulative (35) with attribute complement (46).
    - *Transitive* (40)
      - Active (42)
        - With object (47).
        - With object and objective complement (48).
      - Passive (42)
        - Complete predication (43).
        - With attribute complement (49).
        - With retained object (58).
  - COMPLEMENTS (45)
    - *Attribute* (46)
      - Word (46).
      - Phrase (64).
      - Clause (66).
    - *Object* (47)
      - Word (47).
      - Phrase (64).
      - Clause (66).
    - *Objective* (48)
      - Word (48).
      - Phrase (64).
  - MODIFIERS (53)
    - Word (53).
    - Phrase (55).
    - Clause (55, 67).
- INDEPENDENT EXPRESSIONS (68)
  - Vocative (69).
  - Exclamatory (70).
  - Parenthetical (71).
  - Pleonastic (72).

EXERCISE 70.

(General Review.)

1. *Reproduce from memory the preceding summary, omitting the numerical references.*

2. *Define and illustrate each of the terms used in the summary.*

To the Teacher.—The nominative absolute, which is independent in form, though it is really a modifier, is treated in Part II.

CHAPTER VIII

OF SENTENCES AS SIMPLE, COMPLEX, AND COMPOUND

WITH respect to *meaning*, sentences are classified as **Assertive, Interrogative,** or **Imperative.** With respect to *form*, they are either **Simple, Complex,** or **Compound.**

75. Simple Sentences.—Examine the following sentences:—

	Subject.	Predicate.
a.	The horses	were in the stable.
b.	The horses and the cattle	were in the same stable.
c.	The horses	took fright and ran away.
d.	The horses and the cattle	were fastened in the same stable and were fed at the same time.

Each of these sentences, you observe, consists of but one subject and one predicate, though several of the subjects and predicates are compound.

Definition.—A sentence which contains only one subject and one predicate, either or both of which may be compound, is called a **Simple Sentence.**

In a simple sentence with compound subject and predicate, every verb belongs to every grammatical subject, and every grammatical subject belongs to every verb.

Some grammarians hold that there are as many sentences or clauses in anything we say as there are verbs. According to them,

sentences (*c*) and (*d*) are not simple sentences, but two separate sentences united, with some words omitted: as, "The horses took fright and [the horses] ran away;" "The horses and the cattle were fastened in the same stable and [the horses and the cattle] were fed at the same time."

76. Complex Sentences.—Examine the following sentences:—

Subject.	Predicate.
Where the accident occurred (Substantive Clause.)	is not known.
The spot *where the accident occurred* (Modifying Clause.)	is not known.

In each of these sentences a clause, performing the office of a single word, forms an indispensable part of the whole. It cannot be removed without injury to the meaning of the sentence. On the other hand, it depends on the rest of the sentence for its own significance. It is clear that the subject and the predicate of such a clause are *subordinate* to, that is, of lower rank than, the subject and the predicate of the sentence of which the clause is only a part.

Definition.—A clause used like a single word as a dependent or subordinate part of a sentence is called a **Dependent** or **Subordinate Clause.**

Definition.—A sentence containing a principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses is called a **Complex Sentence** (Latin, "woven together").

The "principal clause" in the first illustrative sentence is the entire sentence; in the second sentence it is, "The spot . . . is not known."

Subordinate clauses are either modifying or substantive clauses; and all modifying or substantive clauses are subordinate.

It is sometimes said that subordinate clauses can be recognized by the fact that they do not by themselves make complete sense. This is not a sure test; for—

(1) Some subordinate clauses make complete sense by themselves; for example, "'*I am going a-milking, sir*,' she said." Here the direct quotation is clearly the object of "said," and is therefore a dependent clause; yet it makes complete sense by itself.

(2) Some principal clauses cannot stand by themselves; for example, "As a man lives, *so must he die*."

77. Compound Sentences.—Examine the following sentences:—

The rain descended, | and | the floods came, | and | the winds blew, | and | [they] smote upon that house; | and | it fell: | and | great was the fall thereof.

The way was long, | the wind was cold, |
The minstrel was infirm and old.

In these selections we see united into one sentence several that are complete in themselves. Although closely related in thought, they could be separated without injury; therefore they are *independent* of one another. Not being dependent one on another, they are said to be *coordinate*, that is, of equal rank.

Definition.—A sentence consisting of several independent or coordinate sentences joined together is called a **Compound Sentence.**

The independent sentences joined together may themselves be complex.

EXERCISE 71.

Show whether the following sentences are simple, complex, or compound:—

1. In the multitude of counselors there is safety.

2. A cow is a very good animal in the field; but we turn her out of a garden.

3. Where the bee sucks, there suck I;
In a cowslip's bell I lie.

4. Flow gently, sweet Afton, among thy green braes;
Flow gently, I'll sing thee a song in thy praise.

5. My heart's in the Highlands, my heart is not here;
My heart's in the Highlands a-chasing the deer.

6. The mossy marbles rest
On the lips that he has prest
In their bloom;
And the names he loved to hear
Have been carved for many a year
On the tomb.

7. Mont Blanc is the monarch of mountains;
They crowned him long ago
On a throne of rocks, in a robe of clouds,
With a diadem of snow.

8. The mountains look on Marathon,
And Marathon looks on the sea;
And musing there an hour alone,
I dreamed that Greece might still be free.

9. He who fights and runs away
May live to fight another day;
But he who is in battle slain
Can never rise and fight again.

10. God moves in a mysterious way
His wonders to perform;
He plants his footsteps in the sea
And rides upon the storm.

78. Compound Sentences Classified. — If we examine compound sentences closely, we find that they are of four kinds:—

(1) Sentences in which the separate sayings are united because of a *similarity* of meaning or a *continuation* of the same line of thought: as,

He called for his pipe, | and he called for his bowl, | and | he called for his fiddlers three.

Fear God | and | keep his commandments.

(2) Sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they stand in *contrast:* as,

He ran to the station, | but | he missed the train.

We called at the house, | but | we did not see her.

(3) Sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they present thoughts between which one must make a *choice:* as,

The book is lost | or | some one has taken it.

(4) Sentences in which the separate sayings are united because they express *cause and effect:* as,

Carl was tired, | therefore | he went to bed.

79. Connecting Words.—In the sentences given in the last section as illustrations, the connecting words are "and," "but," "or," and "therefore." These are the most common joining words in the four kinds of compound sentences; but other connectives are frequently used, such as "also," "moreover," "nor," "nevertheless," "for." Often there are no connecting words at all, the connection

between the united sentences being indicated only by the punctuation. To tell, therefore, how the separate parts of a compound sentence are related to one another, we must consider, not the connectives, but the meaning of the parts.

EXERCISE 72.

Separate the following compound sentences into their independent parts, and tell how the parts are related:—

1. Man proposes, but God disposes.

MODEL FOR ORAL ANALYSIS.—This is a compound sentence, formed by uniting, by way of contrast, the separate sentences "Man proposes" and "God disposes." The connecting word is "but."

2. She must weep or she will die.

3. They toil not, neither do they spin.

4. It rained on Saturday, so we put off the game.

5. He says what he means, and he means what he says

6. The leaves are falling; therefore the swallows will soon be gone.

7. The words of his mouth were smoother than butter, but war was in his heart.

8. The fool doth think he is wise, but the wise man knows himself to be a fool.

9. The heavens declare the glory of God; and the firmament showeth his handiwork.

10. Some are born great, some achieve greatness, and some have greatness thrust upon 'em.

11. Truly there is a tide in the affairs of men; but there is no gulf stream setting forever in one direction.

12. There were gentlemen and there were seamen in the navy of Charles II; but the seamen were not gentlemen, and the gentlemen were not seamen.

13. Meager were his looks,
Sharp misery had worn him to the bones.

14. Suspicion always haunts the guilty mind;
The thief doth fear each bush an officer.

15. Cowards die many times before their deaths;
The valiant never taste of death but once.

16. My words fly up, my thoughts remain below;
Words without thoughts never to heaven go.

17. Errors, like straws, upon the surface flow;
He who would search for pearls must dive below.

18. Through tatter'd clothes small vices do appear;
Robes and furr'd gowns hide all.

19. When beggars die, there are no comets seen;
The heavens themselves blaze forth the death of princes.

20. Night's candles are burned out, and jocund day
Stands tiptoe on the misty mountain tops.

21. I have found out a gift for my fair;
I have found where the wood pigeons breed.

22. A thousand years scarce serve to form a state;
An hour may lay it in the dust.

23. He reads much;
He is a great observer, and he looks
Quite through the deeds of men.

24. This castle hath a pleasant seat; the air
Nimbly and sweetly recommends itself
Unto our gentle senses.

25. The rude sea grew civil at her song,
And certain stars shot madly from their spheres
To hear the sea-maid's music.

26. But yesterday the word of Cæsar might
Have stood against the world; now lies he there,
And none so poor to do him reverence.

27. The glories of our blood and state
Are shadows, not substantial things;
There is no armor against fate;
Death lays his icy hands on kings.

28. Doubt thou the stars are fire;
Doubt that the sun doth move;
Doubt truth to be a liar;
But never doubt I love.

29. Arms on armor clashing bray'd
Horrible discord, and the madding wheels
Of brazen chariots rag'd; dire was the noise
Of conflict.

80. Improper Compound Sentences.—Untrained speakers and writers sometimes unite in one compound sentence thoughts that are not related: as,

Oliver Goldsmith was the son of a clergyman, and when he was young he had the smallpox.

Such a sentence offends the taste of a cultivated person. There is no connection at all between the two facts that are mentioned, and this independence should be indicated by putting them in separate sentences. Other examples are:—

"Diggs belonged to the fifth form, and he was large for his age, and his clothes were always too small, and he used to run into debt."—*From a school exercise.*

"The Acadians were a French colony living in Acadia, in Canada, and in the war between France and England the latter sent some ships to Acadia to remove the inhabitants to other countries."—*From a school exercise.*

EXERCISE 73.

1. *Construct a simple sentence with compound subject; with compound predicate; with both subject and predicate compound.*

2. *Construct a complex sentence containing a modifying clause; a substantive clause used as subject; a substantive clause used as complement.*

3. *Construct a compound sentence in which the separate sayings are related by similarity of meaning; by contrast; by alternate choice; by cause and effect.*

CHAPTER IX

OF ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES

81. Elliptical Sentences Defined.—Language is an intensely practical matter, designed only to express thought, and never employed for its own sake. In using it we very properly think far more of clearness and force than we do of grammatical completeness. It is, therefore, both natural and proper that we should from time to time omit from our sentences grammatical parts which it is unnecessary to use, our meaning being well understood without them. Such omissions are especially common in familiar conversation, where language has the aid of tone and gesture, and in lively or impassioned speech, where from haste or strength of feeling we express only the most important ideas.

Definition.—The omission of part of a sentence necessary to grammatical completeness but not to the meaning is called **Ellipsis** (Greek, "a leaving out").

A sentence in which an omission occurs is called an **Elliptical Sentence.**

The following examples of ellipsis should be carefully studied. The words inclosed in brackets are usually omitted:—

(1) This is important if [it is] true.

(2) He fell while [he was] bravely leading his men.

(3) Who did that? Jack [did it].

(4) I can't come. Why [can you] not [come]?

(5) He has gone, no one knows where [he has gone].

(6) She has a pink gown, I [have] a blue [gown].

(7) Do you promise? I do [promise].

(8) I have never seen her, but Blanche has [seen her].

(9) You may stay if you want to [stay].[1]

(10) The sun gives light by day, the moon [gives light] by night.

(11) He is not so tall as I [am tall].

(12) She put him off as long as [it was] possible [to put him off].

(13) You are wiser than I [am wise].

(14) He looks as [he would look] if he were tired.

(15) Speak so as [one speaks in order] to be understood.

(16) [They being as] poor as they are [poor], they will not beg.

(17) She is seventeen [years old].

(18) It is half past ten [o'clock].

(19) School closes on the twenty-second [day of the month].

(20) [I] thank you.

(21) Why [is] this noise [made]?

(22) [God give you a] good morning, sir.

(23) O [I long] for a glass of water.

(24) If [it] you please.[2]

(25) [If it] please [you] lend me your book.

(26) Broadly speaking, [I should say that] the object of education is to train the faculties.

(27) You are the man [whom] I want to see.

---

[1] This omission of the verb after "to" is not approved by careful writers.
[2] In this sentence the subject is "it."

EXERCISE 74.

What words, necessary to grammatical completeness, but not to the meaning, are omitted in the following elliptical sentences?

1. I walk when I can.
2. He is witty but vulgar.
3. I treat him as a friend.
4. She is as pretty as ever.
5. She loves Fido as well as I.
6. She loves Fido as well as me.
7. Love thy neighbor as thyself.
8. I love my mother more than he.
9. I love my mother more than him.
10. Who steals my purse steals trash.
11. You have known her longer than I.
12. She is more generous than prudent.
13. Father made and I painted the boat.
14. Are you dumb? If not, speak to me.
15. Either a knave or a fool has done this.
16. If the day be fine, and I can go, I will.
17. All seems as calm as an infant's dream.
18. A greyhound can run faster than a hare.
19. He has never seen the ocean, but I have.
20. You should not imitate such a girl as she.
21. John is at the door, David at the window.
22. He was seen before the battle, but not after it.
23. He said that he had found his book and lost it again.
24. Can the Ethiopian change his skin, or the leopard his spots?
25. Pride goeth before destruction, and an[1] haughty spirit before a fall.

[1] This is quoted from the translation of the Bible made in 1611. In modern English we say "*a* haughty spirit."

26. There is nothing so powerful as truth—and often nothing so strange.

27. Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man, and writing an exact man.

28. Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested.

29. Histories make men wise; poets, witty; the mathematics, subtle; natural philosophy, deep; moral, grave; logic and rhetoric, able to contend.

30. We must take the current when it serves,
Or lose our ventures.

31. Love looks not with the eyes, but with the mind;
And therefore is winged Cupid painted blind.

32. Six hours in sleep, in law's grave study six,
Four spend in prayer, the rest on nature fix.

33. I dare do all that may become a man;
Who dares do more is none.

34. Trifles light as air
Are to the jealous confirmations strong
As proofs of holy writ.

35. Blow, blow, thou winter wind!
Thou art not so unkind
As man's ingratitude.

36. Think naught a trifle, though it small appear;
Small sands the mountain, moments make the year,
And trifles life.

37. Who dares think one thing, and another tell,
My heart detests him as the gates of hell.

EXERCISE 75.

Construct five elliptical sentences, and tell what words are omitted.

PART II

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

CHAPTER I

OF THE RECOGNITION OF THE PARTS OF SPEECH

HAVING in Part I studied sentences as wholes and become familiar with their general structure, we are now prepared to study the uses and forms of single words.

82. Words Classified According to Function.—Our language contains more than two hundred thousand words; but when we examine the ways in which these words are used in sentences, we find that we can arrange them all in a few general classes according to their *function*, that is, according to *what they do*. These general classes are called the **Parts of Speech.**[1]

83. Nouns.—Examine the italicized words in the following sentence:—

The gallant *crew* of the *battleship Maine* were under perfect *discipline.*

The italicized words, you observe, are *names.*

Definition.—A word used as a name is called a **Noun.**

---

[1] *To the Teacher.*—The definitions of the parts of speech seem to present no special difficulty to pupils; the real difficulty is to recognize the different kinds of words as they occur. In this chapter, therefore, much space has been given to exercises.

Other examples are:—

Names of objects: Webster, Chicago, army, iron.
Names of actions: walking, laughter, retreat, delay.
Names of qualities: sweetness, warmth, beauty, vice.
Names of conditions: sickness, sleep, death, fatigue.
Names of thoughts: idea, doubt, belief, opinion.

EXERCISE 76.

Write the names of two things that you can see; of two that you can hear but not see; of two that you can feel but not see; of two that you can taste but not see; of two that you can smell but not see; of two that you can neither see, taste, feel, hear, nor smell.

EXERCISE 77.

Point out the nouns in the following sentences:—

1. Brevity is the soul of wit. 2. Misery acquaints a man with strange bed-fellows. 3. They that die by famine die by inches. 4. Nothing is impossible to diligence and skill. 5. The music of the great organ sometimes sounds like the roll of thunder. 6. The length of the journey and the difficulty of the road over the mountains discouraged the soldiers, though the general spirit of the army remained excellent. 7. Sailing on this lake is somewhat dangerous, because the wind comes through the gaps of the mountains in sudden and uneven puffs. 8. Pride goeth before destruction, and an haughty spirit before a fall. 9. Solitude is as needful to the imagination as society is wholesome for the character.

10. The tongues of dying men
Enforce attention like deep harmony.

11. 'Tis distance lends enchantment to the view,
And robes the mountain in its azure hue.

To the Teacher.—If more drill in the recognition of nouns is needed, Exercises 15 and 71 will be found suitable.

84. Pronouns. — No one would ever say: "Charles bought Charles a top; the top Charles afterward gave to Charles's sister Frances; Frances wanted the top." Such a sentence would be both disagreeable to the ear and obscure: it might refer to one Charles and one Frances or to more than one. We should probably say instead: "Charles bought *himself* a top, which *he* afterward gave to *his* sister Frances, *who* wanted *it*." In this sentence the obscurity and the monotonous repetition are both avoided by using the words "himself," "which," "he," "his," "who," and "it"—little words that indicate the objects referred to without naming them.

In asking a question about some object the name of which we do not know, we represent the object by "who" or "what:" as, "*Who* is there?" "*What* did you say?"

Definition.—A word used to stand for a noun is called a **Pronoun.**

Definition.—A noun for which a pronoun stands is called the **Antecedent** of the pronoun.

The antecedents of pronouns are often not expressed.

EXERCISE 78.

What is your name? What five substitutes for your name do you use in referring to yourself? What five substitutes for names do you use in speaking of yourself and others together? What words do you use as substitutes for the names of persons to whom you are speaking? of a boy about whom you are speaking? of a girl? of a thing? of two boys? of three girls? of four things?

EXERCISE 79.

Point out the pronouns, and give their antecedents, if the antecedents are expressed:—

I.

PHILADELPHIA, 5 July, 1775.

MR. STRAHAN:—You are a member of Parliament, and one of that majority which has doomed my country to destruction. You have begun to burn our towns and murder our people. Look upon your hands; they are stained with the blood of your relations! You and I were long friends; you are now my enemy, and I am,

Yours,

B. FRANKLIN.

II.

Then spake the chief butler unto Pharaoh, saying, I do remember my faults this day: Pharaoh was wroth with his servants, and put me in ward in the house of the captain of the guard, me and the chief baker: and we dreamed a dream in one night, I and he; we dreamed each man according to the interpretation of his dream. And there was with us there a young man, an Hebrew, servant to the captain of the guard; and we told him, and he interpreted to us our dreams; to each man according to his dream he did interpret. And it came to pass, as he interpreted to us, so it was; me he restored unto mine office, and him he hanged. Then Pharaoh sent and called Joseph, and they brought him hastily out of the dungeon: and he shaved himself, and changed his raiment, and came in unto Pharaoh. (Genesis xli, 9–14.)

To the Teacher.—If further drill in the recognition of pronouns is desired, Exercises 20, 44, 52, and 65 will be found suitable.

85. Adjectives.—Many nouns have very wide meanings. The noun "horses," for example, applies to all the horses in the world; and to bring the meaning of the word down to the measure of our thought we add to it one or more distinguishing words or modifiers: as,

Black Trotting Two These Some Both No	horses.

Pronouns have no meaning in themselves; but they represent objects which have distinguishing attributes, and therefore they, too, may be accompanied by distinguishing or modifying words: as,

Tired and *hungry*, *I* lay down to sleep.

Definition.—A word joined to a noun or a pronoun by way of limitation or description is called an **Adjective.**

Though the word "adjective" means "put next to," adjectives are often separated from the nouns or pronouns which they modify: as,

You look *happy.*

The *pears* that you laid away have become *ripe.*

There, *silent* and *still*, lay the *army.*

Some adjectives show a *quality* or *attribute* of the object we have in mind; others show *which* objects; others show *how many* or *how much.*

EXERCISE 80.

Join appropriate adjectives to the following nouns, and tell what each adjective shows :—

1. House.	4. Soldiers.	7. Grass.	10. Flowers.	13. Cents.
2. Bottle.	5. Paper.	8. Store.	11. Wisdom.	14. Money.
3. Pens.	6. Shoes.	9. Peaches.	12. Dollars.	15. Road.

EXERCISE 81.

Point out the adjectives, and tell what each shows :—

1. Little strokes fell great oaks. 2. Please make no noise. 3. Where did you find those big apples? 4. I found them in the third bin. 5. Let us climb yonder mountain. 6. Certain women were there. 7. All men must die. 8. Most boys like football. 9. There are several sailboats on the lake. 10. Every dog has his day. 11. No school to-morrow! 12. He has enough money. 13. Along both banks are beautiful shaded walks; and near the mill are two little islands covered with ancient trees.

EXERCISE 82.

Point out the adjectives, and tell what each modifies :—

I.

1. The stately homes of England,—
   How beautiful they stand
   Amid their tall ancestral trees,
   O'er all the pleasant land!

2. The castled crag of Drachenfels
   Frowns o'er the wide and winding Rhine.

3. Up from the meadows rich with corn,
   Clear in the cool September morn,
   The clustered spires of Frederick stand,
   Green-walled by the hills of Maryland.

4. Night, sable goddess! from her ebon throne,
   In rayless majesty, now stretches forth
   Her leaden scepter o'er a slumbering world.

5. How beautiful is night!
   A dewy freshness fills the silent air;
   No mist obscures; nor cloud, nor speck, nor stain,
   Breaks the serene of Heaven:
   In full-orbed glory, yonder moon divine
   Rolls through the dark blue depths;
   Beneath her steady ray
   The desert circle spreads
   Like the round ocean, girdled with the sky.
   How beautiful is night!

To the Teacher.—If more drill in the recognition of adjectives is needed, Exercises 7 and 15 will be found suitable.

86. Articles.—Examine the words attached to the nouns in the following selection:—

A man and *a lion* once had *a dispute* as to which belonged to *the* nobler *race*. *The man* pointed to *an* ancient *monument* on which was sculptured *a* triumphant *hunter* standing over *a* vanquished *lion*. "That doesn't settle *the question*," said *the lion;* "for if *a lion* had been *the sculptor*, he would have represented *the lion* as standing over *the hunter*."

Every noun in this selection is accompanied by "a," "an," or "the," of which "a" and "an" are merely different forms of the same word. These remarkable little words, attached to nouns by way of limitation, are of the nature of adjectives; but they are so peculiar in their function and so frequent in recurrence that they are usually put in a class by themselves, with a name of their own.

Definition.—"A" or "an" and "the" are called **Articles.**

EXERCISE 83.

(Review.)

Tell what part of speech each word is in the following sentences:—

1. Facts are stubborn things.
2. Order is Heaven's first law.
3. Time rolls his ceaseless course.
4. No mate, no comrade, Lucy knew.
5. The groves were God's first temples.

87. Verbs.—The nature and importance of verbs have already been studied in Part I, Chapter III.

To the Teacher.—Whether or not it is desirable at this point to review Chapter III of Part I must be determined by the teacher.

88. Adverbs.—The action or state denoted by a verb may vary in time, place, manner, or degree. For example, a person may laugh now or to-morrow, here or there, loudly or quietly, much or little. Words joined to verbs to express such modifications of time, place, manner, or degree are called **Adverbs.** Other examples are:—

	Adverbs.	
He went	again.	TIME.
	soon.	
	yesterday.	
	there.	PLACE.
	yonder.	
	before.	
	cheerfully.	MANNER.
	fast.	
	thus.	
	twice.	DEGREE.
	often.	
	little.	

A few adverbs denote affirmation, negation, emphasis, or uncertainty: as,

He *certainly* went.
He did *not* go.
Yes, he went.
He went *indeed*.
Perhaps he went.

The attributes or qualities denoted by many *adjectives* may vary like the actions denoted by verbs, especially in degree; therefore adverbs, especially of degree, are often attached to adjectives: as,

	Adverbs.	Adjective.
He is	very exceedingly rather somewhat too	shy.

Similarly, the ideas denoted by many *adverbs* may vary in degree; therefore adverbs of degree are often attached to adverbs: as,

	Adverbs.	Adverb.
He writes	very too rather more	slowly.

Gathering together these different uses of adverbs, we have the following definition.

Definition.—An **Adverb** is a word joined by way of limitation to a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

EXERCISE 84.

Join adverbs to the verbs in the following sentences, and tell what they show:—

1. Come ——.
2. He came ——.
3. He will come ——.
4. The ship sailed ——.
5. The agent called ——.
6. We heard the noise ——.
7. The policeman looked ——.
8. The tired traveler slept ——.
9. The soldier was —— wounded.
10. Were you —— thrown from a horse?

EXERCISE 85.

Pick out the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell what they modify :—

1. She sang well. 2. I was agreeably disappointed. 3. How is it done? 4. You have spoken truly. 5. I can hardly believe it. 6. He was ill pleased. 7. Cut it lengthwise. 8. Tear it apart. 9. Put them together. 10. He was pitched headlong into the sea. 11. I never saw her. 12. We came to school late yesterday. 13. Once or twice we have met alone. 14. Ambition urges me forward. 15. Where is your hat? 16. Are you going far? 17. We are going abroad.

EXERCISE 86.

Join appropriate adverbs to the following adjectives :—

1. —— good. 3. —— more. 5. —— tired. 7. —— sick.
2. —— happy. 4. —— rich. 6. —— famous. 8. —— discouraged.

EXERCISE 87.

Point out all the adverbs, and tell what they modify :—

1. Are you quite sure? 2. He was a very tall man. 3. He was wholly unfit for the position. 4. Iron is much heavier than aluminum. 5. Too many cooks spoil the broth. 6. The sky was nearly black. 7. Mother is somewhat better. 8. We were dripping wet. 9. The wide fringe is too dear. 10. The Alps are far grander than these mountains. 11. Trout are exceedingly shy. 12. The walk was rather long.

EXERCISE 88.

Join appropriate adverbs to the adverbs in the following sentences :—

1. He ran —— fast.
2. She sings —— well.
3. She reads —— more.
4. They come —— often.
5. Write —— carefully.
6. I must go —— soon.
7. Don't go —— far.
8. I went —— before.

EXERCISE 89.

Point out all the adverbs, and tell what they modify :—

1. I was very kindly received. 2. Go directly south. 3. You read very much too fast. 4. Do not show your feeling too plainly. 5. That was not done well enough. 6. I will surely disturb you no more. 7. We are indeed almost there. 8. He is always there. 9. Yes, we unfortunately arrived too soon. 10. I surely expect him to-morrow. 11. The current runs very fast here. 12. The shadow on the dial never goes backward. 13. To and fro, and in and out, the wan stars danced between. 14. She dances very well indeed. 15. He is not much distressed. 16. Possibly he has forgotten how much you grieved. 17. The clock that usually stands here has never run accurately. 18. Why did you come to-day? 19. You are far too hasty. 20. I am now much better; I hope to be quite well very soon, but I must not try to walk too far to-day. 21. You may do that once too often. 22. 'Tis always morning somewhere in the world. 23. He's armed without that's innocent within. 24. Hitherto shalt thou come, but no further; and here shall thy proud waves be stayed.

25. The mouse that always trusts to one poor hole
Can never be a mouse of any soul.

To the Teacher.—If further drill in the recognition of adverbs is needed, Exercises 23, 38, and 52 will be found suitable.

EXERCISE 90.

(Review.)

Tell what part of speech each word is in the following sentences :—

1. Thou shalt surely die.
2. There he was quite safe.
3. My sister will come presently.
4. This child was very little hurt.
5. Little white lily smells very sweet.

89. Prepositions.—Compare the following expressions:—

(*a*) Last year.

(*b*) The last year *of the century.*

In the first expression we describe the year by the adjective "last." In the second expression we further describe it by telling its relation to the century. To express this relation we use the word "of," which unites with the words "the century" to form an adjunct or modifying phrase.

Definition.—A word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word, and forming with it a modifying phrase, is called a **Preposition.**

Definition.—The noun or the pronoun used with a preposition is called its **Object.**

Definition.—A phrase consisting of a preposition and its object (with or without modifiers) is called a **Prepositional Phrase.** Other examples are:—

Prepositional Phrases used as Adjectives.

	Preposition.	Noun or Pronoun.
The book	on	the table.
	in	the desk.
	under	the seat.
	behind	the door.
	by	the window.
	beneath	the cover.
	at	the top.
	below	the dictionary.
	beside	the lamp.
	between	us.
	near	you.
	behind	me.

The preceding prepositional phrases are attached to a noun; the following are attached to a verb or an adjective:—

Prepositional Phrases used as Adverbs.

	Preposition.	Noun or Pronoun.
We walked	to	the village.
	across	the fields.
	around	the lake.
	down	the street.
	over	the bridge.
	past	the schoolhouse.
	through	the tunnel.
	during	the storm.
	with	him.
It is long	after	sunset.
	before	dark.
	till	morning.

Though the word "preposition" means "placed before," a preposition and its object are often separated by other words; and sometimes the preposition comes after its object: as,

He came *with* at least two thousand *men.*
The top *of* yon high eastern *hill.*
What are you looking *at?* (i. e., *At what* are you looking?)

EXERCISE 91.

Show relation between the following words by using appropriate prepositions:—

1. Clouds —— us.
2. Men —— wealth.
3. Train —— Boston.
4. Born —— Savannah.
5. Asleep —— sermon.
6. Talk —— nothing.
7. Dust —— door.
8. Travel —— England.

EXERCISE 92.

Point out the prepositions and their objects, and tell what the prepositional phrases modify :—

THE BATTLE OF PLASSEY.

The day broke—the day which was to decide the fate of India. At sunrise the army of the Nabob, pouring through many openings of the camp, began to move toward the grove where the English lay. Forty thousand infantry, armed with firelocks, pikes, swords, bows and arrows, covered the plain. They were accompanied by fifty pieces of ordnance of the largest size, each tugged by a long team of white oxen, and each pushed on from behind by an elephant. Some smaller guns, under the direction of a few French auxiliaries, were perhaps more formidable. The cavalry were fifteen thousand. The force which Clive had to oppose to this great multitude consisted of only three thousand men. * * *

The battle commenced with a cannonade, in which the artillery of the Nabob did scarcely any execution, while the few field pieces of the English produced great effect. Several of the most distinguished officers in Surajah Dowlah's service fell. Disorder began to spread through his ranks. * * * Clive snatched the moment, and ordered his troops to advance. The confused and dispirited multitude gave way before the onset of disciplined valor. In an hour the forces of Surajah Dowlah were dispersed, never to reassemble. * * * With the loss of twenty-two soldiers killed and fifty wounded, Clive had scattered an army of nearly sixty thousand men, and subdued an empire larger and more populous than Great Britain.—*Macaulay :* "Essay on Lord Clive."

To the Teacher.—If further drill in the recognition of prepositions is needed, Exercises 9, 15, 51, and 52 will be found suitable.

90. Conjunctions.—Examine the following:—

Compound Sentences.

Independent Clause.	Connecting Word.	Independent Clause.
The wind blew,	and	the rain fell.
I ran fast,	but	I missed the train.

Complex Sentences.

Principal Clause.	Connecting Word.	Subordinate Clause.
Rob will go	if	Ethel goes.
He says	that	he will come.
Guy is older	than	Lewis [is old].

Connected Phrases.

	Connecting Word.	
By the people	and	for the people.

Connected Words.

	Connecting Word.	
Sink	or	swim.

From this it appears that some words are used as mere connectives, joining together sentences, phrases, or words.

Definition.—A word used to connect sentences, phrases, or words is called a **Conjunction.**

When subordinate clauses come first, they carry with them the conjunction which connects them with the principal clause: as,

Conjunction.	Subordinate Clause.	Principal Clause.
If	Ethel goes	Rob will go.
Unless	it rains	we shall all go.
That	he will come	is certain.
Whether	father can come	is doubtful.

Conjunctions sometimes occur in pairs, the first of the pair being not really a connective, but a sort of forerunner announcing that something will presently be added: as,

Either you *or* I must go.

It is *neither* useful *nor* ornamental.

The king was weak *both* in body *and* in mind.

Sometimes a conjunction is used at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to connect it with what precedes.

Prepositions connect words, but not in the same way as conjunctions. When words are connected by prepositions, one always bears a modifying relation to the other. When words are connected by conjunctions, they are grammatically on an equality, the conjunction merely indicating that they are to be taken together.

EXERCISE 93.

Fill the blanks with appropriate conjunctions :—

1. Poor —— honest.
2. Beautiful —— good.
3. I wonder —— he will come.
4. I could —— buy —— borrow it.
5. I cannot deny —— he means well.
6. He was punished, —— he was guilty.
7. We cannot go —— we finish our task.
8. He was punished, —— he was not guilty.
9. I do not know —— I shall walk —— ride.
10. There is no doubt —— the earth is round.
11. Scarcely had I thrown in my line —— I felt a nibble.
12. She could —— dance —— sing, —— she played the piano.

EXERCISE 94.

Point out the conjunctions, and tell what they connect :—

1. She was good as she was fair.
2. Handsome is as handsome does.
3. Neither a borrower nor a lender be.

4. Better one bird in hand than ten in the wood.

5. Rich gifts wax poor when givers prove unkind.

6. If chance will have me king, why, chance may crown me.

7. Experience keeps a dear school, but fools will learn in no other.

8. So teach us to number our days, that we may apply our hearts unto wisdom.

9. A dwarf sees farther than the giant when he has the giant's shoulder to mount on.

10. Dost thou love life? Then do not squander time; for that is the stuff life is made of.

11. Mend your speech a little,
Lest it may mar your fortunes.

12. When sorrows come, they come not single spies,
But in battalions.

13. O what a tangled web we weave,
When first we practice to deceive!

To the Teacher.—If further drill in the recognition of conjunctions is needed, Exercises 27, 72, and 74 will be found suitable

91. Interjections.—Examine the use of the italicized words:—

Ouch! I cut myself.
Bravo! that was well done.

You observe that "Ouch!" and "Bravo!" form no part of the accompanying sentences (which are complete without them), but are sudden outcries, uttered as condensed expressions of some kind of feeling. Other examples are: "Oh!" "Pshaw!" "Alas!" "Hurrah!" "Fie!"

Definition.—A word used as a sudden expression of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence, is called an **Interjection.**

EXERCISE 95.

Mention five interjections different from those given above.

EXERCISE 96.

(REVIEW.)

Tell the part of speech to which each word in the following sentences belongs:—

1. Procrastination is the thief of time.
2. Custom reconciles us to everything.
3. The march of the human mind is slow.
4. Patience is a necessary ingredient of genius.
5. Earth with her thousand voices praises God.
6. How blessings brighten as they take their flight!
7. Assassination has never changed the history of the world.
8. Fine manners need the support of fine manners in others.
9. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
   Act well your part, there all the honor lies.

92. Verbals.—Besides these nine parts of speech just described, there are two important kinds of words that are intermediate between verbs on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other. They are formed from verbs and retain some of the characteristics of verbs, with which they are usually classed; but they differ from verbs in being used, not as predicates of sentences, but as nouns or adjectives. They are called **Verbals**, and they are of two kinds: noun-verbals, called **Infinitives**; and adjective-verbals, called **Participles**. These words are, in a sense, forms of the verb; but they are so peculiar in their nature and frequent in their occurrence that they require separate description now.

93. Infinitives.—Examine the italicized words in the following sentence:—

To climb / *Climbing* } steep hills requires a slow pace.

Here "To climb" and "Climbing" are formed from the verb "climb," and are followed by a direct object, "hills;" therefore they partake of the nature of verbs. They are used, however, not to *assert* an action, but to *name* it; therefore they partake also of the nature of nouns.

Definition.—A word that partakes of the nature of both verb and noun is called an **Infinitive.**

The *distinguishing marks* of an infinitive are these: (1) it is derived from a verb; (2) it takes, or may take, the same complements and modifiers as the verb from which it is derived; (3) it is used as a noun.

With regard to *form*, infinitives are of two principal kinds: (1) the **Root Infinitive,** with or without "to," so called because it is the same as the root, or simple form, of the verb; (2) the **Infinitive in -ing.**

The infinitive with "to" sometimes has the force of an adjective or an adverb: as, "Water *to drink;*" "He came *to see* us." In such cases "to" is a real preposition with the infinitive as its object, the two forming a prepositional phrase.

The root infinitive without "to" is seen in "You need not *wait*," where "wait" is the object complement of "need." Other examples are:—

"You dare not *do* it;" "I saw him *fall;*" "We must *go* now;" "I had rather *die* than *do* it."

EXERCISE 97.

Point out the infinitives in the following sentences, and show that they partake of the nature of both verb and noun.

1. Always take time to do your best.
2. It is better to wear out than to rust out.
3. Wounds made by words are hard to heal.
4. It is much easier to be critical than to be correct.
5. One can show his moral courage by daring to do right.
6. Censure is the tax a man pays to the public for being eminent.
7. If to do were as easy as to know what were good to do, chapels had been churches, and poor men's cottages princes' palaces.
8. How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is
   To have a thankless child!
9. Of all those arts in which the wise excel
   Nature's chief masterpiece is writing well.
10. Truth from his lips prevailed with double sway,
    And fools who came to scoff remained to pray.
11. O, it is excellent
    To have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous
    To use it like a giant.
12. Unpracticed he to fawn, or seek for power,
    By doctrines fashioned to the varying hour;
    Far other aims his heart had learned to prize,
    More skilled to raise the wretched than to rise.
13. Why so pale and wan, fond lover?
    Prithee, why so pale?
    Will, when looking well can't move her,
    Looking ill prevail?
    Prithee, why so pale?

EXERCISE 98.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the root infinitive and the infinitive in "-ing" as subject; as object; as attribute complement; as object of a preposition.

94. Participles.—Examine the italicized words in the following sentences:—

The girl intently *reading* a book is my cousin.

The plant commonly *called* Nightshade is poisonous.

In the first sentence "reading," formed from the verb "read," has an object, "book," and is modified by an adverb, "intently;" therefore it partakes of the nature of a verb. But it is attached to the noun "girl" by way of description, and therefore it partakes also of the nature of an adjective.

In the second sentence "called," formed from the verb "call," has an attribute complement, "Nightshade," and is modified by an adverb, "commonly;" therefore it partakes of the nature of a verb. But it is attached to the noun "plant" by way of description, and therefore it also partakes of the nature of an adjective.

Definition.—A word that partakes of the nature of both verb and adjective is called a **Participle.**

The distinguishing marks of a participle are these: (1) it is derived from a verb; (2) it takes, or may take, the same complements and modifiers as the verb from which it is derived; (3) it is used as an adjective.

From simple participles are derived **Phrasal Participles:** as, "Florence, *having said* good-bye, turned to go."

Very often a participle is loosely attached to the subject of a sentence, not so much to describe it, as to express some attendant action or condition: as,

Hearing a noise in the street, I went to the window.

EXERCISE 99.

Point out the participles in the following sentences, and show that they partake of the nature of both verb and adjective :—

1. I am going the way of all the earth.

2. The smallest worm will turn, being trodden on.

3. He rushed into the field, and foremost fighting fell.

4. Sweeping and eddying through the bridge rose the belated tide.

5. Peter the hermit, dressed in a coarse robe, and bearing in his hand a crucifix, traveled through Italy and France, preaching the duty of rescuing the Holy Sepulcher from the Mohammedans.

6. A little fire is quickly trodden out;
Which, being suffered, rivers cannot quench.

7. Now morn, her rosy steps in the eastern clime
Advancing, sowed the earth with Orient pearl.

8. The world is too much with us; late and soon,
Getting and spending, we lay waste our powers.

9. Sudden a thought came like a full-blown rose,
Flushing his brow.

10. A falcon, towering in her pride of place,
Was by a mousing owl hawked at and killed.

11. Morn,
Waked by the circling hours, with rosy hand
Unbarred the gates of light.

12. The cattle are grazing,
Their heads never raising;
There are forty feeding like one!

13. I have heard the mavis singing
Its love song to the morn;
I've seen the dewdrop clinging
To the rose just newly born.

14. By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
Their flag to April's breeze unfurled,
Here once the embattled farmers stood,
And fired the shot heard round the world.

EXERCISE 100.

Construct two sentences containing participles ending in "-ing;" two containing other participles.

95. Caution.—Not all words ending in "-ing" are infinitives or participles. Examine, for instance, the italicized words in the following sentences:—

(1) The child slept *during* all the noise.

(2) *Nothing* daunted, he began again.

(3) There is *something* in the wind.

(4) This constant *climbing* of steep hills takes my breath.

(5) *Spelling* is harder for some persons than for others.

In (1) the word ending in "-ing" is a preposition. In (2) it has the force of an adverb, modifying the participle "daunted." In (3) it is a noun derived, not from a verb, but from the vague noun "thing." In (4) it is a noun derived from a verb, and so far it resembles an infinitive; but it differs from an infinitive in having completely lost its verbal characteristics, for it is modified by adjectives instead of by adverbs, and instead of taking a direct object like the verb from which it came, it is followed by a prepositional phrase. In (5) it is impossible to tell whether the word ending in "-ing" should be classed as an infinitive or as a pure noun, for it has no adjuncts to guide us. Nor is the question important. When adjuncts are present the classification is easy: thus,

Good *spelling* is easier for some than for others. (Pure noun, because modified by an adjective, "good.")

Spelling long words is easier for some than for others. (Infinitive, because accompanied by an object, "words.")

EXERCISE 101.

Classify the italicized words in the following sentences:—

1. A boy came ***sauntering*** along.
2. Do you call that ***being*** a soldier?
3. I have a ***feeling*** that you may be right.
4. I found her ***reading*** "Idyls of the King."
5. ***Feeling*** one's way in the dark is slow work.
6. ***According*** to my watch, it is just ten o'clock.
7. His mother is opposed to his ***playing*** football.
8. ***Feeling*** sure that he would come, I waited longer.
9. He was elected captain, ***notwithstanding*** his youth.
10. Good ***writing*** is fostered by the ***reading*** of good books.
11. Unless the kettle ***boiling*** be,
    Filling the teapot spoils the tea.
12. He would do ***nothing*** to relieve the distress of his ***starving*** tenants.
13. Linnæus knelt beside the mountain gorses, ***thanking*** God for their beauty.
14. In the battle off Cape Vincent, Nelson gave orders for ***boarding*** the "San Josef," ***exclaiming***, "Westminster Abbey, or victory!"
15. I have done with ***expecting*** from her any course of steady ***reading***, for she will not submit to ***anything requiring*** industry and patience or much exercise of the ***understanding***.
16. Gladstone protested against people's ***going*** to Monte Carlo, and ***putting*** down their five francs just for the fun of the ***thing***, and so ***adding*** to the respectability of the place, and then ***thinking*** that they are ***doing*** no harm.

EXERCISE 102.

Construct a sentence containing an infinitive in "-ing;" a participle ending in "-ing;" a pure noun ending in "-ing;" a preposition ending in "-ing."

96. Caution.—It must not be supposed that the same word is always the same part of speech. Examine, for instance, the function of "iron" in the following sentences:—

(*a*) *Iron* is heavy.

(*b*) An *iron* kettle hung on the crane.

(*c*) Laundresses *iron* clothes.

(*d*) An *iron*-bound bucket hung in the well.

In (*a*) "iron" is a noun; in (*b*) it is an adjective; in (*c*), a verb; in (*d*), an adverb. It is clear, therefore, that the function of a word may vary, requiring us to classify it sometimes as one part of speech, sometimes as another.

EXERCISE 103.

Tell to what part of speech each word in italics belongs:—

1. (*a*) The sun shines on *rich* and *poor* alike. (*b*) He is a *rich* man, but a *poor* scholar.

2. (*a*) You *must, must* you? (*b*) "*Must*" is made for the queen.

3. (*a*) They *summer* at Bar Harbor. (*b*) One swallow does not make a *summer*. (*c*) This is a *summer* hotel.

4. (*a*) *Farewell!* (*b*) *Adieu!* (*c*) Where thou art gone *adieus* and *farewells* are a sound unknown.

5. (*a*) I am *very* glad to see you. (*b*) You are the *very* man I was looking for. (*c*) "*Very*" is a common word.

6. I was about to send *for* you, *for* I have something to show you.

7. (*a*) Farmers *till* the soil. (*b*) Look in the *till*. (*c*) Stay *till* the bell rings. (*d*) Stay *till* the next train.

8. (*a*) Do not lose a *second*. (*b*) I *second* your motion. (*c*) She won *second* prize. (*d*) You come *second*.

9. (*a*) We walked *about*. (*b*) What did you talk *about?* (*c*) We talked *about* golf. (*d*) *About* a dozen girls were there.

10. (*a*) The tops of many mountains are *above* the clouds. (*b*) The captain went *above*. (*c*) *Above* five hundred were present. (*d*) A voice came from *above*. (*e*) He rooms on the floor *above*.

11. (*a*) *All* men are mortal. (*b*) He staked his *all* on the turn of a card. (*c*) *All* agreed with me. (*d*) That is *all* right.

12. (*a*) Take *either* road. (*b*) He must *either* work or starve. (*c*) Ask *either* of them.

13. (*a*) He ran *fast*. (*b*) He was a *fast* runner. (*c*) They *fast* twice in a week. (*d*) This *fast* lasted forty days.

14. (*a*) I *like* him. (*b*) I shall not look upon his *like* again. (*c*) He looks *like* his grandfather. (*d*) He talks *like* his mother. (*e*) *Like* causes produce *like* results. (*f*) *Like* produces *like*.

15. (*a*) A *little* child shall lead them. (*b*) It matters *little* what he says. (*c*) Give me a *little*.

16. (*a*) We want *more* men. (*b*) Fear *no more* the heat of the sun. (*c*) Have you any *more* of this?

17. (*a*) He laughs too *much*. (*b*) *Much* learning hath made you mad. (*c*) She made *much* of him.

18. (*a*) It was his *only* chance. (*b*) He went *only* to the corner. (*c*) "*Only*" should come next to the expression that it modifies.

19. (*a*) Turn *over* a new leaf. (*b*) We came *over* the mountain. (*c*) We must have walked *over* six miles.

20. (*a*) *Since* that time I have not seen her. (*b*) *Since* it is raining, we will not go. (*c*) I have not seen her *since*.

21. (*a*) The house *still* stands. (*b*) All is *still*. (*c*) A *still* small voice. (*d*) Alcohol is made in a *still*. (*e*) With his name the mothers *still* their babes.

22. (*a*) *That* bird is a thrush. (*b*) I thought *that* it was a robin. (*c*) A city *that* is set on a hill cannot be hid. (*d*) *That* you have wronged me doth appear in this. (*e*) *That* is what I meant.

23. (*a*) Since *then* he has done better. (*b*) The apple trees were *then* in blossom. (*c*) If you stay, *then* I will stay.

24. (*a*) *There* is a spider. (*b*) *There* is nothing more to do. (*c*) *There! there!* be quiet.

25. (*a*) We read for a *while*. (*b*) We read *while* they played tennis. (*c*) They *while* away the time with books and games.

EXERCISE 104.

1. *Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as a verb :—*

bark cheat comb fall guide pen run talk

2. *Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as an adjective :—*

autumn cloth dinner hollow much plain silver tin

3. *Use each of the following words first as an adjective, then as a verb :—*

clean dull lame left lower smooth thin weary

4. *Use each of the following words first as a noun, then as an adjective, then as a verb :—*

blind calm last light roast sound spring steel

5. *Use each of the following words first as an adjective, then as an adverb, then as a verb :—*

better long wrong

6. *Use each of the following words first as an adverb, then as a preposition :—*

about above behind down on up

7. *Use each of the following words first as an adverb, then as a preposition, then as a conjunction :—*

after before since

97. Summary of the Parts of Speech.—The classes of words described in this chapter comprise all the words of our language. They may be summarized as follows:—

Nouns: Words used as names.

Pronouns: Words used to stand for nouns.

Adjectives: Words joined to nouns or pronouns by way of limitation or description.

Articles: The words "a," "an," or "the."

Verbs: Words used, with or without adjuncts, as the predicates of sentences.

Infinitives: Words that partake of the nature of both verb and noun.

Participles: Words that partake of the nature of both verb and adjective.

Adverbs: Words joined by way of limitation to verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Prepositions: Words placed before nouns or pronouns to show their relation to other words, and forming with them modifying phrases.

Conjunctions: Words used to connect sentences, phrases, or words.

Interjections: Words used as sudden expressions of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence.

EXERCISE 105.

(General Review.)

Classify the words in the following sentences:—

1. Striving to better, oft we mar what's well.
2. If all the year were playing holidays,
   To sport would be as tedious as to work.
3. Imperious Cæsar, dead and turned to clay,
   Might stop a hole to keep the wind away.

4. Heaven's ebon vault
Studded with stars unutterably bright,
Through which the moon's unclouded grandeur rolls,
Seems like a canopy which love has spread
To curtain her sleeping world.

5. He sung Darius, great and good,
By too severe a fate.
Fallen, fallen, fallen, fallen,
Fallen from his high estate,
And welt'ring in his blood;
Deserted, at his utmost need,
By those his former bounty fed,
On the bare earth exposed he lies,
With not a friend to close his eyes.

6. I walk unseen
On the dry smooth-shaven green,
To behold the wandering moon
Riding near her highest noon,
Like one that had been led astray
Through the heaven's wide pathless way:
And oft, as if her head she bowed,
Stooping through a fleecy cloud.

7. There was a jolly miller once,
Lived on the river Dee;
He worked and sung from morn till night:
No lark more blithe than he.
And this the burden of his song
Forever used to be,—
I care for nobody, no, not I,
If no one cares for me.

CHAPTER II

OF INFLECTION, DERIVATION, AND COMPOSITION

BEFORE proceeding with the study of the parts of speech, we must learn to distinguish those changes in the form of a word that are made by **Inflection, Derivation,** and **Composition.**

98. Inflection.—Examine the following groups of words:—

Noun.	Pronoun.	Adjective.	Verb.
man	he	sweet	sing
man's	his	sweeter	sings
men	him	sweetest	sang

In each of these groups we recognize the same word under different forms. These variations in form denote slight modifications in the meaning and use of the word, but they do not change either the general meaning or the part of speech; the noun remains a noun, the verb a verb. Moreover, most other words of the same class, as "boy," "they," "sick," "hear," undergo similar alterations in form, corresponding to similar changes in meaning and use.

Definition.—A change in the form of a word to show a slight change in its meaning or use is called **Inflection.**

EXERCISE 106.

Mention as many inflections as you can of the following words:—

child do eat heavy move they teeth who

99. Derivation.—Compare the following words:—

true
truly
truth
truthful
untruth
untruthfulness

Here we have six words entirely different in meaning and use. Some belong to one part of speech, others to another; and those that belong to the same part of speech, as "truth," "untruth," and "untruthfulness," have distinctly different meanings. But though they are thus different in meaning and use, the last five words are clearly formed from the first by attaching a **Prefix** ("un-") or a **Suffix** ("-ly," "-th," "-ful," "-ness"), or both.

Definition.—The process of forming a new word from another word by attaching a prefix or a suffix, or by changing a vowel, is called **Derivation.** The new word is called a **Derivative.**

Examples of derivation by change of vowel are: bless, bliss; feed, food; gild, gold; heat, hot; pride, proud; raise, rise; tale, tell.

Definition.—The original form of a word in inflection or derivation is called the **Root.**

EXERCISE 107.

Mention derivatives formed from the following words, and show that the new forms are derivatives, not inflections:—

child friend give man pure wise

100. Composition. — Examine the following words:—

black
board
blackboard

Here we have three different words, entirely distinct in meaning and use; but the last is formed by combining the first two.

Definition.—The process of forming a new word by combining two other words is called **Composition.** The new word is called a **Compound** word.

The parts of a compound word are often connected with a hyphen: as, "hair-brush," "son-in-law." Whether to use the hyphen or not cannot be decided by rule. It is for the most part a question of usage, which must be learned from observation or from the dictionary.

EXERCISE 108.

Make a list of five compound words, determining from a dictionary how they should be written.

CHAPTER III

OF NOUNS

I. CLASSIFICATION.

A **Noun** is a word used as a name (**83**).

101. Different Kinds of Nouns.—Examine the names in the following sentence:—

The *crew* of the *battleship Maine* were under perfect *discipline*.

"Battleship" and "Maine" both name the same object, but in different ways: "Battleship" is the name of any one of a class of ships resembling one another in structure and purpose; "Maine" is the name of a particular battleship. "Crew" is the name of a body of men considered collectively. "Discipline" is the name of a condition.

102. Proper Nouns.—The noun "Maine," in our illustrative sentence, is the name of a particular battleship.

Definition.—A noun that is the name of some particular object, to distinguish that object from others of its kind, is called a **Proper Noun.**

Other examples of proper nouns are:—

Abraham Lincoln Monday Nashville Oregon Pike's Peak

Proper nouns, when written, always begin with capital letters; so also do words derived from them: as, America, American, Americanism.

103. Common Nouns.—The noun "battleship" is a name common to all ships of the same class.

Definition.—A noun that is common or applicable to all objects of the same class is called a **Common Noun.**

Other examples of common nouns are:—

city day man mountain state

Common nouns, when written, begin with small letters.

EXERCISE 109.

Write two proper nouns suggested by each of the following common nouns:—

boy city dog girl newspaper ocean river state

EXERCISE 110.

Give the common nouns that are applicable to the following individual objects:—

Brooklyn California Donald England Friday Helen July

104. Collective Nouns. — The common noun "crew" is applied to a body of men considered collectively.

Definition.—A noun that is the name of a number of objects taken together is called a **Collective Noun.**

Other examples of collective nouns are:—

army (a collection of soldiers)
fleet (a collection of vessels)
herd (a collection of animals)

This distinction is important when collective nouns are referred to by pronouns or are used as subjects of sentences. For instance, we refer to a committee as "it" when we think of it as a whole; when we think of the individuals who compose it, we use the

pronoun "they." Similarly we say, "The jury *has* retired," thinking of it as a single body; "The jury *have* dined," thinking of the members.

EXERCISE 111.

What objects are grouped together by the following collective nouns?

audience choir drove flock squadron swarm team

105. Abstract Nouns.—An ivory ball we know to be round, white, and elastic. These qualities exist together in the ball; but in the mind we can consider them separately, apart both from the ball and from one another. The mental power that enables us thus to separate a quality or attribute from the object that possesses it is called **Abstraction** (Latin, "separating").

Definition.—A noun that is the name of a quality, action, or condition withdrawn or abstracted in thought from the object to which it belongs, is called an **Abstract Noun.**

Examples of abstract nouns are:—

ability	discipline	freedom	hardihood	strength
carelessness	faith	friendship	influence	velocity

This distinction has only slight grammatical bearing; but it is occasionally useful.

EXERCISE 112.

Give two abstract nouns suggested by each of the following objects:—

a flower a lemon a mountain a race horse a stone

EXERCISE 113.

Classify the nouns in Exercise 77 (*page* 112).

Nouns are occasionally inflected to show **Gender,** and regularly inflected to show **Number** and **Case.**

II. GENDER.

106. Gender Defined.—Observe the distinction between the following nouns:—

lion lioness

Both nouns name animals of the same general class; but one is the name of the male animal, the other of the female. This distinction is indicated by the inflection "-ess." The distinction between the objects themselves is called **Sex.** The distinction between their names is called **Gender.**

Definition.—**Gender** is a classification of nouns and pronouns according to the sex of the objects for which they stand.

Definition.—A word denoting a male object is in the **Masculine Gender.**

Definition.—A word denoting a female object is in the **Feminine Gender.**

Definition.—A word denoting an object that has no sex is in the **Neuter Gender** (Latin, "neither").

Words like "friend," "child," "thief," "bird," which apply without change to either male or female objects, are masculine or feminine according to the sex of the particular object spoken of.

Words that apply to objects of either sex are said by some grammarians to be in the **Common Gender;** but most modern grammarians reject this classification as useless.

107. Ways of Denoting Gender.—Compare the following pairs of words:—

Masculine.	Feminine.
waiter	waitress
man-servant	maid-servant
brother	sister

You observe there are three ways of distinguishing gender:—

1. **By a Feminine Suffix, usually "-ess."**—In the following list note the occasional changes in the body of the word:—

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
abbot	abbess	host	hostess
actor	actress	hunter	huntress
administrator	administratrix	idolater	idolatress
adventurer	adventuress	Jew	Jewess
baron	baroness	lad	lass
benefactor	benefactress	lion	lioness
count	countess	marquis	marchioness
czar	czarina	master	mistress
deacon	deaconess	patron	patroness
duke	duchess	preceptor	preceptress
emperor	empress	prince	princess
enchanter	enchantress	prophet	prophetess
executor	executrix	shepherd	shepherdess
giant	giantess	sorcerer	sorceress
god	goddess	sultan	sultana
heir	heiress	tiger	tigress
hero	heroine	waiter	waitress

2. **By a Prefix Denoting Gender.**—The following are important examples:—

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
bull-elephant	cow-elephant	he-goat	she-goat
cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow	man-servant	maid-servant
he-bear	she-bear		

3. **By Separate Words.**—These are to be learned from conversation and reading. The following is a list of some that are often confounded or otherwise misused :—

Masculine.	Feminine.	Masculine.	Feminine.
bachelor	spinster, maid	monk	nun
buck	doe	ram	ewe
bullock	heifer	stag	hind
drake	duck	wizard	witch
gander	goose		

EXERCISE 114.

Give the gender of the nouns in the following selection :—

DR. PRIMROSE AND THE FACE WASH.

As we expected our landlord the next day, my wife went to make the venison pasty. Moses sat reading, while I taught the little ones. My daughters seemed equally busy with the rest ; and I observed them for a good while cooking something over the fire. I at first supposed they were assisting their mother, but little Dick informed me, in a whisper, that they were making a wash for the face. Washes of all kinds I had a natural antipathy to, for I knew that, instead of mending the complexion, they spoil it. I therefore approached my chair by sly degrees to the fire, and grasping the poker, as if it wanted mending, seemingly by accident overturned the whole composition, and it was too late to begin another.—*Goldsmith :* "The Vicar of Wakefield."

EXERCISE 115.

To the Teacher.—(1) and (2) should be used as a dictation exercise. Other words may be added from the foregoing lists at discretion.

1. *Write the feminine word corresponding to :—*

abbot bachelor bullock drake earl marquis ram sultan
actor buck czar duke hero monk stag tiger

2. *Write the masculine word corresponding to :—*

doe duck ewe goose heifer hind spinster witch

3. *Construct sentences illustrating the correct use of the foregoing words, consulting a dictionary for their meaning.*

108. Gender and Pronouns.—Distinctions of gender are grammatically important because on them depends the right use of the pronouns "he," "his," "him," "she," "her," "hers," "it," and "its." Examine, for instance, the italicized nouns and pronouns in the following selection :—

KING MIDAS AT BREAKFAST.

King Midas took a nice little *trout* on *his* plate, and, by way of experiment, touched *its* tail with *his* finger. To *his* horror, *it* was immediately transmuted from an admirably fried brook trout into a goldfish, though not one of those goldfishes which people often keep in glass globes, as ornaments for the parlor. No; but *it* was really a metallic fish, and *it* looked as if *it* had been very cunningly made by the nicest goldsmith in the world. *Its* little bones were now golden wires; *its* fins and tail were thin plates of gold; and there were the marks of the fork in *it*, and all the delicate, frothy appearance of a nicely fried fish, exactly imitated in metal.

"Well, this is a quandary!" thought *he*, leaning back in *his* chair, and looking quite enviously at little *Marygold*, who was now eating *her* bread and milk with great satisfaction.

And truly, did you ever hear of such a pitiable case in all your lives? Here was literally the richest *breakfast* that could be set before a king, and *its* very richness made *it* absolutely good for nothing. The poorest *laborer*, sitting down to *his* crust of bread and cup of water, was far better off than King Midas, whose delicate *food* was really worth *its* weight in gold.—*Hawthorne:* "A Wonder Book."

You observe that the **Masculine Nouns**, like "King

Midas," are referred to by "he," "his," or "him;" **Feminine Nouns,** like "Marygold," by "she" or "her;" **Neuter Nouns,** like "breakfast" and "food," by "it" or "its." "Trout," which is either masculine or feminine, is here referred to by "it" or "its," because the object named is thought of as a mere thing, without any reference to sex. "Laborer," which is also either masculine or feminine, but which denotes a person instead of a thing, is referred to as "he," in accordance with an established custom of our language when there is no desire to emphasize distinctions of sex. If the author had thought distinctions of sex were here important, he would have said, "The laborer sitting down to *his* or *her* crust of bread."

Sometimes animals are referred to as "he" or "she," even when no distinction of sex is intended. Thus, "The *tiger* steals silently on *his* prey;" "A *hare* popped out from a furze brake, and ran for *her* life." In such cases the speaker uses "he" if he fancies the animal to possess masculine qualities, such as strength, fierceness; "she" if he thinks the animal's qualities are rather feminine, such as timidity, gentleness.

109. Gender in Personification.—Examine the following sentence:—

Spring hangs *her* infant blossoms on the trees.

You observe that the writer refers to spring, which has neither life nor sex, by a feminine pronoun. The explanation is that he imagined spring as a

gracious goddess, and spoke accordingly. When we thus speak of an object without life as if it were a person, we are said to **Personify** it. Gender in personification is determined by the same principle as in speaking of animals without regard to sex: things remarkable for size, power, strength, or other manly qualities are referred to as masculine; things remarkable for beauty, gentleness, grace, or other womanly qualities are referred to as feminine. Other examples are:—

(*a*) The *sun* now rose upon the right;
Out of the sea came *he*.

(*b*) Now *morn, her* rosy steps in the eastern clime
Advancing, sowed the earth with orient pearl.

EXERCISE 116.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with appropriate pronouns:—

1. Can a leopard change —— spots?
2. Close in —— covert cowered the doe.
3. The ewe lamb bleated for —— mother.
4. The child was unconscious of —— danger.
5. The heifer rubbed —— nose against the bars.
6. The goose had wandered from —— companions.
7. The hind knew the dogs to be —— mortal enemies.
8. The duck was pluming —— feathers after —— swim.
9. Even a fool, when —— holdeth —— peace, is counted wise.
10. If any person in the class needs a pencil, I will lend —— mine.
11. Every witch, it was thought, kept a broomstick ready behind —— door.
12. The wild beast from —— cavern sprang, the wild bird from —— grove.
13. As for man, —— days are as grass: as a flower of the field, so —— flourisheth.

EXERCISE 117.

1. *Write sentences in which the following things shall be personified as masculine :—*

time war winter electricity

2. *Write sentences in which the following things shall be personified as feminine :—*

a ship the earth night liberty

III. NUMBER.

110. Number Defined.—Examine the difference between the words in the following pairs :—

book	fox	ox	man
book**s**	fox**es**	ox**en**	m**en**

The first word of each pair suggests a single object; the second word suggests more than one. In the first three pairs the difference in meaning is brought about by the addition of a suffix; in the last, by an internal change in the word.

Definition.—A difference in the form of a word to distinguish objects as one or more than one is called **Number.**

Definition.—The form of a word that denotes one object is called the **Singular Number.**

Definition.—The form of a word that denotes more than one object is called the **Plural Number.**

Number has an important influence on pronouns, verbs, and the adjectives "this" and "that." For example, we say :—

This bell was ringing, *but it has* stopped.
These bells were ringing, *but they have* stopped.

111. Formation of the Plural.—Most nouns form the plural by adding "s" to the singular; as,

book, books. The following variations from this regular rule are important:—

1. **"-es."**—When the singular ends in a sound that does not unite with "s" alone, "es" is added, forming an additional syllable: as, fox, foxes.

2. **Plural of Nouns Ending in "o."**—If the final "o" is preceded by a vowel, the plural is formed regularly, i. e., by adding "s:" as, cameo, cameos. If the final "o" is preceded by a consonant, the tendency of modern usage is to form the plural by adding "es:" as, hero, heroes; potato, potatoes. The following common words, however, still form the plural by adding "s" alone:—

banjo	chromo	halo	octavo	solo
burro	contralto	junto	piano	stiletto
canto	duodecimo	lasso	proviso	torso
casino	dynamo	memento	quarto	tyro

3. **Plural of Nouns Ending in "y."**—If the "y" is preceded by a vowel, the plural is regular: as, valley, valleys.

If the "y" is preceded by a consonant, "y" is changed to "i" and "es" is added to form the plural: as, lady, ladies; city, cities.

4. **Plural of Nouns Ending in "f."**—The following nouns ending with the sound of "f" change "f" or "fe" to "v" and add "es":—

beef	elf	knife	life	self	shelf	wife
calf	half	leaf	loaf	sheaf	thief	wolf

5. **Survivals of Ancient Plurals.**—In Old English there were other ways of forming the plural, traces of which survive:—

(1) PLURALS IN "-EN."—These were once in very common use. The only surviving examples are: *oxen, brethren, children. Kine* (cows) is used in poetry.

(2) PLURALS BY INWARD CHANGE.—Of this method the surviving examples are: foot, *feet;* tooth, *teeth;* goose, *geese;* louse, *lice;* man, *men;* mouse, *mice;* woman, *women.*

6. **Plural of Proper Nouns.**—Proper nouns, when made plural, are not changed internally: as, Henry, Henrys; Nero, Neros.

Proper names preceded by titles, as "Mr. Smith," "Miss Smith," "Colonel Smith," are treated in two different ways. We say "the Mr. Smiths," "the Mrs. Smiths," "the Miss Smiths," "the Colonel Smiths;" but we also say "the Messrs. Smith," "the Misses Smith," and "the Colonels Smith."

7. **Plural of Compound Nouns.**—Most compound nouns form the plural by adding the proper sign of the plural to the fundamental part of the word, i. e., to the part which is described by the rest of the phrase: as, ox-cart, ox-carts; court-martial, courts-martial; aide-de-camp, aides-de-camp. When no single word is fundamental, as in "forget-me-not," the sign of the plural is put at the end: as, forget-me-nots. Words like "spoonful," the compound nature of which has been almost forgotten, also take the sign of the plural at the end: as, spoonfuls, cupfuls, "Man-servant," "woman-servant," and "knight-templar" often add the plural sign to both words: as, men-servants.

CAUTION.—"Brahman," "Mussulman," "Ottoman," and "talisman" are not compounds of "man." They resemble "German" and "Norman," and form the plural by adding "s:" as, Mussulmans, talismans.

8. **Letters, Figures,** and other **Symbols** are made plural by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "There are more *e's* than *a's* in this word;" "Dot your *i's*, and cross your *t's*."

9. **Unchanged Plurals.**—Some names of animals are the same in both singular and plural. The important examples are: cod, deer, grouse, sheep, salmon, swine, trout.

Some nouns of number and measure may be used in a plural sense without change of form. Important examples are: "Two *brace* of ducks;" "She bought three *dozen;*" "His years are four *score;*" "Ten *head* of cattle;" "Two *hundredweight* of iron;" "Three *pair* of horses;" "Twelve *yoke* of oxen." In these expressions the plural meaning is sufficiently indicated by the preceding numeral.

EXERCISE 118.

(Dictation Exercise.)

Write the plural of the following nouns:—

(1) Deer, trout, grouse.

(2) Apple, peach, rose, box, bush, grass.

(3) Ox, child, tooth, goose, mouse, woman.

(4) Mary, George, Harry, Miss Clark, Mr. Brown, Dr. Young.

(5) German, Dutchman, Frenchman, Brahman, Mormon, Mussulman, Ottoman, talisman.

(6) Ally, chimney, fairy, baby, mystery, turkey, body, journey.

(7) Chief, calf, dwarf, fife, elf, grief, gulf, half, hoof, knife, leaf, loaf, roof, sheaf, shelf, strife, thief, wife, wolf.

(8) Buffalo, echo, canto, volcano, portfolio, banjo, dynamo, solo, memento, mosquito, bamboo, negro, hero, chromo.

(9) Man-of-war, goose-quill, spoonful, commander-in-chief, major-general, man-servant, court-yard, court-martial, father-in-law, step-son, forget-me-not, bill-of-fare, looker-on, knight-errant.

112. Two Plurals.—We say "There are big *fish* in the lake," using fish in a plural, collective sense, and we also speak of "The story of the three *fishes*," having in mind a story about three separate fish. From this it appears that some nouns have two plurals, which differ in meaning. The following is a list:—

Singular.	Plural.
brother	brothers (by birth), brethren (of a society).
cloth	cloths (of different kinds), clothes (garments).
die	dies (for coining or stamping), dice (for play).
fish	fishes (separate objects), fish (collective).
genius	geniuses (persons of great ability), genii (spirits).
index	indexes (in books), indices (in algebra).
penny	pennies (separate coins), pence (sum of money).
shot	shots (discharges), shot (balls).

EXERCISE 119.

Distinguish between :—

1. How many shot (shots) did you count?
2. The story tells of two genii (geniuses).
3. He gave the beggar six pennies (pence).
4. He showed me some new cloths (clothes).
5. I have two handfuls (hands full) of gold dust.
6. He was always kind to his brothers (brethren).
7. Two dice (dies) were found in the prisoner's pockets.
8. He carried two pailfuls (pails full) of water up the hill.
9. There are serious errors in the indexes (indices) in this new algebra.

113. Foreign Plurals.—Some nouns of foreign origin have peculiar foreign plurals. In the following list of such nouns, when two plural forms are given for the same noun, the English plural is preferable :—

Singular.	Plural.
alumna (feminine)	alumnæ
alumnus (masculine)	alumni
analysis	analyses
animalculum	animalcula
antithesis	antitheses
bacterium	bacteria
bandit	bandits banditti
beau	beaus beaux
cherub	cherubs cherubim
crisis	crises
curriculum	curricula
datum	data
formula	formulas formulæ
genius	geniuses (persons of great ability) genii (spirits)
genus ("class")	genera
hypothesis	hypotheses
memorandum	memorandums memoranda
oasis	oases
parenthesis	parentheses
phenomenon	phenomena
seraph	seraphs seraphim
stratum	strata
tableau	tableaux
thesis	theses

EXERCISE 120.

(Dictation Exercise.)

1. *Write the plural of :—*

Alumna, analysis, bandit, beau, cherub, crisis, curriculum, datum, formula, genius, genus, hypothesis, oasis, nebula, parenthesis, phenomenon, seraph, stratum, synopsis, tableau.

2. *Write the singular of :—*

Alumni, animalcula, bacteria, cherubim, curricula, data, genera, oases, phenomena, seraphim, strata, theses.

EXERCISE 121.

Construct sentences containing the plural of the following words, first consulting a dictionary for their meaning :—

Aide-de-camp, ally, animalculum, antithesis, bacterium, canto, court-martial, crisis, curriculum, datum, elf, genus, hypothesis, memento, phenomenon, solo, stratum, talisman.

To the Teacher.—This exercise may be extended at discretion by selecting additional words from the lists in Sections 111–113.

114. Divided Usage.—Some singular nouns look like plurals, e. g., "alms;" and some plural nouns are singular in sense, e. g., "measles." In regard to such nouns custom is divided, treating them at one time as singulars and at another as plurals.

The following are generally treated as singular: amends, gallows, news, the United States, mathematics, optics, and other words in "-ics," except "athletics," which is generally plural.

The following are generally treated as plural: ashes, assets, dregs, eaves, nuptials, oats, pincers,

proceeds, riches, scissors, shears, suds, tongs, trousers, victuals, vitals.

For further information on cases of doubtful usage a large dictionary must be consulted.

EXERCISE 122.

Which of the italicized forms is preferable?

1. The dregs *was* (*were*) bitter.
2. Ethics *is* (*are*) the science of duty.
3. The assets of the company *is* (*are*) $223,000.
4. Please pour *this* (*these*) suds on the rose bed.
5. Where did you get *this* (*these*) pretty scissors?
6. Why *was this* (*were these*) ashes dumped here?
7. In many schools athletics *is* (*are*) carried too far.
8. His riches *has* (*have*) taken to *itself* (*themselves*) wings.
9. Mathematics *is* (*are*) harder for some persons than for others.
10. The eaves of the house *is* (*are*) thirty feet above the ground.
11. The proceeds of the lecture *was* (*were*) given to the Orphan Asylum.
12. The United States *has* (*have*) informed Spain of *its* (*their*) intention regarding Cuba.
13. Politics, in *its* (*their*) widest extent, *is* (*are*) both the science and the art of government.
14. Their nuptials *was* (*were*) celebrated at the same time as *that* (*those*) of Bassanio and Portia.

EXERCISE 123.

Construct sentences illustrating the number of the following nouns:—

amends news oats physics pincers shears tongs trousers

IV. CASE.

115. Case Defined.—In the sentence "John has given Henry Annie's pencil," each of the four nouns bears a peculiar relation to other words. Three of them are related to the verb: "John," as subject, "pencil," as direct object, "Henry," as indirect object. "Annie's" is related to "pencil" by showing ownership—a relation indicated by the suffix "'s."

In Old English these relations were often indicated, as in Latin and Greek, by special forms of the noun, called **Cases.** After the Norman Conquest these forms fell into disuse, and nouns in modern English retain only one relic of them, namely, the **Possessive.** With the single exception of the "'s" denoting ownership or possession, the relation of a noun to the other parts of a sentence is now shown mainly by its position.

But though most of the forms have disappeared, the names of some of them have been retained to denote relations which the forms used to show. For example, in the sentence "John has given Henry Annie's pencil," we still say "John" is in the **Nominative** case, referring to its relation as subject; and some grammarians say that "Henry" is in the *Dative* case, and "pencil" in the *Accusative.* But since the dative and accusative cases are now never distinct in form, most grammarians merge them into one case called the **Objective.**

Definition.—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows its relation to other words is called **Case.**

Definition.—The form of a noun or pronoun

that shows the relation of subject is called the **Nominative Case.**

Definition.—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows possession is called the **Possessive Case.**

Definition.—The form of a noun or pronoun that shows the relation of object is called the **Objective Case.**

The nominative and objective cases of nouns, being always alike in modern English, might be merged into one if it were not for the fact that in pronouns these cases have distinct forms: as, *I* help *him*, and *he* helps *me*.

The function of case forms may be well illustrated by reference to a line from Gray's "Elegy:" "And all the air a solemn stillness holds." Critics cannot agree as to whether "air" or "stillness" is the subject of this sentence; that is, whether the poet meant that the air contained stillness or that stillness held fast the air. In Latin or Greek there could be no doubt, because the form of the words would show which was subject and which object.

116. Form of the Possessive Case.—In the SINGULAR number the possessive of nouns is formed, as a rule, by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "The *boy's* coat." Often the pronunciation of the added "s" makes a new syllable. If this additional syllable makes an unpleasant sound, the "s" is omitted, but the apostrophe is retained: as, "For *goodness'* sake." If the "s" is sounded, it is always written; and if it is written, it should be pronounced in reading. The putting in or the leaving out of the "s" in such cases is chiefly a matter of taste. Whenever there is doubt it is well to add the "s:" as, "*Horace's* odes," "*Charles's* ball," "*Dickens's* 'David Copperfield.'"

In the PLURAL number, when the plural already ends in "s" (as it usually does), the possessive case is formed by adding an apostrophe alone ('): as, "*Boys'* shoes." The possessive of those few nouns whose plural does not end in "s" is formed, as in the singular number, by adding an apostrophe and "s" ('s): as, "*Men's* shoes."

The possessive case of COMPOUND nouns and expressions used as compound nouns is formed by adding the proper sign of the possessive to the end of the compound: as, "That is my *sister-in-law's* pony;" "This is the *Prince of Wales's* palace."

When two or more persons possess a thing in common, the sign of the possessive is attached to the last name only: as, "John and Mary's home."

Separate ownership is indicated by adding the sign of the possessive to each name: as, "Alice's and Jessie's dresses."

In forming the possessive of "anybody else" and "who else" usage is somewhat divided and inconsistent. The weight of good usage seems to incline to "anybody else's;" but, on the other hand, we usually say "whose else."

EXERCISE 124.

1. *Write the possessive case, singular and plural, of the following nouns:—*

Actor, calf, child, countess, day, deer, eagle, elephant, fairy, farmer, fox, goose, horse, king, lady, lion, man, monkey, mouse, mouth, ox, prince, princess, thief, wife, witness, wolf, woman, year.

2. *Write the possessive case of—*

Charles, Dickens, Douglas, Eggleston & Co., father-in-law, Frederick the Great, Harper & Brothers, Henry the Eighth, his sister Mary, James, Jones, man-of-war, Miss Austen.

117. Declension.—We are now prepared to draw up a scheme of the inflection of any English noun for number and case: thus,

	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative:	man	men	dog	dogs
Possessive:	man's	men's	dog's	dogs'
Objective:	man	men	dog	dogs

Definition.—The inflection of nouns and pronouns for number and case, arranged in order, is called **Declension.**

When we give the declension of a noun or a pronoun we are said to **Decline** it.

EXERCISE 125.

To the Teacher.—Since the only difficulty in declining nouns lies in the writing of the possessive case, declension should always be a written exercise.

Decline the following nouns:—

calf	deer	Henry	king	monkey	ox	princess
child	fox	James	lady	mouse	prince	wolf

V. PERSON.

118. Person.—In the sentence, "I, John, was in the isle Patmos," John names the *speaker;* in "John, please come here," John names the person *spoken to;* in "John has come," John names the person *spoken of.*

Definition.—The distinction between nouns or pro-

nouns as denoting the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of, is called **Person.**

Definition.—A noun or pronoun that denotes the person speaking is in the **First Person.**

Definition.—A noun or pronoun that denotes the person or thing spoken to is said to be in the **Second Person.**

Definition.—A noun or pronoun that denotes a person or thing spoken of is in the **Third Person.**

Nouns do not change in form to denote person; and most nouns are in the third person. The distinction has importance only in connection with pronouns and verbs.

VI. CONSTRUCTIONS.

119. Construction Defined.—In the study of sentences the most important question about a noun, or any other part of speech, is its relation to the other words of the sentence.

Definition.—The relation of a word to the rest of the sentence is called its **Construction** (Latin, "putting together").

120. Constructions of Nouns Summarized.—If we examine the constructions of the word "day" in the following sentences, we shall find that a noun may be used in fourteen different ways:—

1. *Subject of verb:* The *day* is past and gone.
2. *Attribute complement:* To-morrow is the appointed *day*.
3. *Object complement:* I've lost a *day*.
4. *Objective complement:* God called the light *day*.
5. *Possessive:* Another *day's* work is done.
6. *Appositive:* Sunday, the *day* of rest, is precious to the laborer.

7. *Adjective modifier:* The *day* star arise in your hearts.

8. *Adverbial modifier:* We waited a *day*.

NOTE.—In this construction the noun expresses *measure* of some kind.

9. *Object of preposition:* Rome was not built in a *day*.

10. *Indirect object:* Give every *day* its task.

11. *Vocative:* Come, *day*, and chase the shadows of the night.

12. *Exclamation:* O happy *day!* The battle's won.

13. *Nominative absolute:* The *day* being rainy, we stayed at home.

14. *Subject of infinitive:* I considered the *day* to be unfavorable.

Of these constructions the first twelve need no explanation beyond what has been said in preceding pages. The last two require explanation now.

121. Subject of Infinitive.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) I think *that he is honest.*

(*b*) I think *him to be honest.*

In (*a*) the object of "think" is the clause "that he is honest," in which "he" is the subject of the verb "is;" in (*b*) the object of "think" is the phrase "him to be honest," in which the objective "him" has the same relation to the infinitive "to be" that the nominative "he," in the corresponding clause has to the verb "is." "Him," therefore, is called the **Subject of the Infinitive.**

The subject of an infinitive is always in the objective case.

Other examples are:—

"He ordered *me to move* on."

"The teacher saw *her go*."

"The colonel commanded the *bridge to be burned*."

"He declared *them to be* counterfeit."

122. Nominative Absolute.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) *When night came on*, we lighted a fire.

(*b*) *Night coming on*, we lighted a fire.

These sentences are alike in meaning, but differ in form. In (*a*) the time of the principal action is shown by the subordinate clause, "When night came on," in which "night" is the subject of the verb "came." In (*b*) the connective "when" has been dropped and the verb "came" has been changed to a participle attached to "night." "Night" is thus left without any grammatical connection with the rest of the sentence, and is said to be in the **Nominative Absolute** (Latin, "free").

Other examples of the nominative absolute are:—

The *sea* being smooth, we went for a sail.

Bruce lay down, his *heart* [being] heavy with sorrow.

The *ceremony* [having been] completed, we dispersed.

Caution.—The nominative absolute must not be confounded with constructions in which a participle is loosely attached to the subject of a sentence (**94**).

The participle belonging to a nominative absolute may be omitted, but the nominative itself may not; otherwise the participle will be left dangling, apparently attached to the nearest substantive. For example, in the incorrect sentence, "Crossing the ferry, my hat blew off," "crossing" seems to be attached to "hat," which is not intended.

EXERCISE 126.

Construct sentences illustrating each of the ways in which nouns may be used. (It is not necessary to use the same noun.)

123. Uses of the Nominative Case.—A noun is said to be in the *nominative* case when it is—

1. The subject of a verb.
2. An attribute complement. (Often called a *predicate noun* or *predicate nominative.*)
3. A vocative. (Often called *nominative of address.*)
4. An exclamation. (Often called *nominative of exclamation.*)
5. A nominative absolute.

Exception.—An attribute complement of the infinitive "to be" is in the *objective* case if the infinitive has a subject of its own; because the subject of an infinitive is in the objective case, and forms of the verb "to be," which resemble the sign "=," take the same case after them as before them.

124. Uses of the Objective Case.—A noun is said to be in the objective case when it is—

1. A direct object.
2. An objective complement.
3. An indirect object.
4. The object of a preposition.
5. An adverbial modifier. (Often called an *adverbial objective.*)
6. The subject of an infinitive.

125. Use of the Possessive Case.—It is sometimes a question whether to use the possessive case or a phrase beginning with "of," i. e., whether to say "Arnold's treason" or "the treason of Arnold." The tendency of the best modern usage is to con-

fine the possessive case to nouns denoting living beings, and with them to use it only in instances of actual or imagined possession: as, "Arnold's sword," "the treason of Arnold." Yet some short phrases, like "a week's wages," "a day's march," "a dollar's worth," "at death's door," "for pity's sake," are supported by the best usage. With pronouns still greater latitude is allowed. No one hesitates to write "on our account," "in my absence," "to their credit," "for my sake," "in his defense."

The possessive case and a phrase introduced by "of" are not always exact equivalents. For instance, "John's story" means a story told by John; but a "story of John" means a story about John.

EXERCISE 127.

Express relation between the nouns in the following pairs by putting one of them in the possessive case or by using the preposition "of," as seems best from what you have learned in Section 125. *Give the reason for your choice:—*

Witness, testimony; horse, hoof; the President, public reception; Delmonico, restaurant; battleship Maine, destruction; Charles the Second, reign; Henry the Eighth, wives; teacher, advice; Paris, siege; book, cover; princess, evening gowns; Spain, navy; Napoleon, banishment; Napoleon, camp chest; Demosthenes, orations; Webster, orations; gunpowder, invention; conscience, sake; general, horse; cat, claws; enemy, repulse; the United States, army; Major André, capture; mountain, top; summer, end.

EXERCISE 128.

Distinguish between the following:—

1. Mother's love. Love of mother.
2. A sister's care. Care of a sister.
3. Ethel's drawing. A drawing of Ethel.
4. Charles and Harry's toys. Charles's and Harry's toys.
5. Admiral Dewey's reception. The reception of Admiral Dewey.
6. Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown. Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown's.

126. Double Possessive.—The sentence, "Let me tell you a story of Doctor Brown's," contains a *double possessive* ("of Doctor Brown's"), in which we use both the possessive case, after the manner of Old English, and the preposition "of," after the manner of Norman-French. Though this double possessive cannot be logically justified, it is nevertheless recognized by the best writers as good English. Moreover, it is often convenient; as when it enables us to distinguish between "a story of Doctor Brown" and "a story of Doctor Brown's." Other examples are:—

That boy *of yours*.
A friend *of* my *brother's*.
O speak good of the Lord, all ye works *of his*.

127. Case in Apposition.—Nouns in apposition are said to be in the same case. But when the nouns are in the possessive, the sign of possession is usually attached only to one of them: as, "Jack the Giant Killer's boots."

128. Substitutes for Nouns.—Words or groups of words that are not commonly to be classed as nouns are often used substantively in the constructions of nouns, as follows:—

(1) *Pronoun:* *I* see *him.*

(2) *Adjective:* I did my *best.*

(3) *Adverb:* *Now* is the accepted time.

(4) *Infinitive:* *To delay* is fatal.

(5) *Phrase:* "*Ay, ay, sir!*" burst from a thousand throats.

(6) *Clause:* *What you want* is not here.

129. How to Parse Nouns.—When we describe a word as it stands in a sentence, we are said to **Parse** it. To parse a word we must give a description of its class, form, and use.

To parse a noun we must give its—

(1) Class.

(2) Gender.

(3) Number.

(4) Construction.

(5) Case.

EXERCISE 129.

Parse the nouns in the following selections:—

I.

A Farewell.

My fairest child, I have no song to give you;
No lark could pipe to skies so dull and gray;
Yet, ere we part, one lesson I can leave you
For every day.

Be good, sweet maid, and let who will be clever;
Do noble things, not dream them, all day long;
And so make life, death, and that vast forever
One grand sweet song. —*Charles Kingsley.*

II.

Evening in Paradise.

Now came still Evening on, and Twilight gray
Had in her sober livery all things clad;
Silence accompanied; for beast and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,
Were slunk, all but the wakeful nightingale;
She all night long her amorous descant sung:
Silence was pleased. Now glowed the firmament
With living sapphires; Hesperus, that led
The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon,
Rising in clouded majesty, at length
Apparent queen, unveiled her peerless light,
And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw;
When Adam thus to Eve: "Fair consort, the hour
Of night, and all things now retired to rest,
Mind us of like repose, since God hath set
Labor and rest, as day and night, to men
Successive; and the timely dew of sleep,
Now falling with soft slumberous weight, inclines
Our eyelids. Other creatures all day long
Rove idle, unemployed, and less need rest;
Man hath his daily work of body or mind
Appointed, which declares his dignity,
And the regard of Heaven on all his ways;
While other animals unactive range,
And of their doings God takes no account."

—*Milton*: "Paradise Lost."

CHAPTER IV

OF PRONOUNS

A **Pronoun** is a word used to stand for a noun (84). The noun for which a pronoun stands is called its **Antecedent.**

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

130. Personal Pronouns Defined.—Examine the pronouns in the following sentence:—

I have lost *my* pencil; please lend *me yours* till *you* need *it yourself.*

"I," "my," and "me" stand for the person speaking, and cannot be used to refer to the person spoken to or spoken of. "You," "yours," and "yourself" stand only for the person spoken to. "It" is used only for a thing spoken of.

Definition.—Pronouns that distinguish between the person speaking, the person spoken to, and the person or thing spoken of are called **Personal Pronouns.**

Personal pronouns are so called, not because they stand for persons, but because they mark grammatical person (**118**).

EXERCISE 130.

Point out the personal pronouns in Exercises 20 *and* 38, *and tell of each whether it stands for the person speaking, the person spoken to, or the person or thing spoken of. If it stands for the person or thing spoken of, give its antecedent.*

131. Personal Pronouns of the First Person.— Fill the blanks with personal pronouns representing (1) a boy speaking, (2) a girl speaking, and note the differences, if there are any:—

—— know Mary. Mary knows ——. Mary is —— cousin. The pen she is using is ——.

Fill each of the following blanks with a pronoun representing the speaker and some others:—

—— love Carlo. Carlo loves ——. Carlo is —— dog. Yes, he is ——.

You observe that personal pronouns of the first person are not inflected to denote gender, since the sex of the person speaking is always supposed to be known; but they are inflected to show number and case.

Tabulating the forms used in filling the blanks, we find that the personal pronoun of the first person is thus declined:—

	Singular.	Plural.
Nominative:	I	we
Possessive:	my, mine	our, ours
Objective:	me	us

These forms are really fragments of different words, and not true inflections. But they serve the same purpose as inflections.

"I" is always written as a capital letter.

The plural forms represent, not two or more speakers, but the speaker and others for whom he speaks. Sometimes they are used by an editor or a sovereign to refer to himself alone: as,

EDITOR: *We* are sure *we* voice the sentiments of the people.

KING DUNCAN: This castle hath a pleasant seat; the air
Nimbly and sweetly recommends itself
Unto *our* gentle senses.

This is called the "editorial" or "majestic" use of *we*.

EXERCISE 131.

Construct sentences containing the different forms of the personal pronouns of the first person.

132. Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.— In the following selections examine the pronouns that stand for the persons spoken to:—

BIBLICAL.

Singular. Rejoice, O young man, in *thy* youth; and let *thy* heart cheer *thee* in the days of *thy* youth, and walk in the ways of *thine* heart, and in the sight of *thine* eyes: but know *thou*, that for all these things God will bring *thee* into judgment.

Plural. *Ye* stand this day all of *you* before the Lord *your* God. . . . Blessed are *ye* poor, for *yours* is the kingdom of God.

POETIC.

Singular. Roll on, *thou* deep and dark blue Ocean—roll!
Ten thousand fleets sweep over *thee* in vain;
Man marks the earth with ruin—his control
Stops with the shore;—upon the watery plain
The wrecks are all *thy* deed.
* * * *
Time writes no wrinkle on *thine* azure brow,—
Such as creation's dawn beheld, *thou* rollest now.

Plural. *Ye* crags and peaks, I'm with *you* once again.

ORDINARY PROSE.

Singular. Young gentleman, *your* spirit is too bold for *your* years. I pray *you*, give over this attempt. It requires greater strength than *yours*.

Plural. Come early, girls; and if *you* feel like it, bring *your* mandolins; I want to hear *you* play.

These selections show that the pronouns used to represent the person spoken to differ according to the character of the language employed. In the

Biblical and poetical passages they are, for the *singular*, "thou," "thy," "thine," and "thee," according to the case; for the *plural*, "ye," "your," "yours," and "you." In the ordinary prose passages they are, for both *singular and plural*, "you," "your," and "yours." There is no inflection to denote gender, because the sex of the person spoken to is presumably always known. Tabulating these forms, we may say that the personal pronoun of the second person is thus declined:—

	Biblical and Poetic.		**Ordinary.**
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular and Plural.
Nominative:	thou	ye	you
Possessive:	thy, thine	your, yours	your, yours
Objective:	thee	you	you

The forms marked "Biblical and Poetic" were once the "Ordinary" forms. In course of time, however, a peculiar distinction grew up between the singular and the plural forms. The singular forms were used in the language of affectionate intimacy or superiority; the language of politeness or respect employed the plural forms. This distinction became stronger and stronger, until now "thou," "thy," "thine," and "thee" are no longer used in ordinary conversation, except by members of the Society of Friends. "Ye" has been displaced by "you" through a confusion of nominative and objective (**137,** NOTE).

Since "you," which is now the common pronoun of address, is really a plural word, it takes a plural verb when it is a subject, even though only one person is addressed: as, "You *were* mistaken, Edith" (not "You *was*").

EXERCISE 132.

Construct sentences containing those forms of the personal pronoun of the second person that are used in ordinary discourse.

133. Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.— Fill the blanks with personal pronouns representing (1) a boy spoken of, (2) a girl spoken of, (3) a tree spoken of:—

—— is ten years old. I do not know —— height. I often go to see ——.

Fill the blank in the following sentence with a pronoun referring to (1) a boy spoken of, (2) a girl spoken of:—

This book is ——.

Fill the blanks in the following sentences with pronouns representing (1) two or more boys spoken of, (2) two or more girls spoken of, (3) two or more trees spoken of:—

—— are each ten years old. I do not know —— heights. I often go to see ——.

Fill the blank in the following sentence with a pronoun referring to (1) two or more boys spoken of, (2) two or more girls spoken of:—

These books are ——.

You observe that personal pronouns standing for persons or things spoken of vary with gender, number, and case. Tabulating the forms used in filling the blanks, we find that the personal pronouns of the third person are thus declined:—

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	All Genders.
Nominative:	he	she	it	they
Possessive:	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
Objective:	him	her	it	them

"Its" is a modern form, found only once in the English Bible of 1611 (Lev. xxv, 5). The old possessive of "it" was "his:" as, The iron gate "opened to them of *his* own accord" (Acts xii, 10). Since "his" was also the possessive of "he," confusion arose, which led gradually to the formation of a new possessive for "it."

EXERCISE 133.

Construct sentences containing the different forms of the personal pronouns of the third person.

134. Special Uses of "It."—The pronoun "it" has a variety of special uses:—

(1) *As substitute for a group of words:* as,

To cross the ocean was once a mighty undertaking; now *it* is a mere pleasure trip.

I heard that *he was coming*, but I didn't believe *it*.

(2) *As impersonal subject* (**28**): as,

Is *it* well with thee?
It has been raining.

(3) *As impersonal object:* as,

They roughed *it* for two weeks.
Thy mistress leads thee a dog's life of *it*.

(4) *As an expletive* (**29**): as,

What pain *it* was to drown!
How is *it* that you come so soon?

EXERCISE 134.

Describe the use of the pronoun "it" in each of the following sentences:—

1. I won't go, and that's an end of *it*. 2. *It* is excellent to have a giant's strength, but *it* is tyrannous to use *it* like a giant.

3. There was nothing for *it* but to return. 4. Come and trip *it* as you go. 5. He deserved his punishment, and he knew *it*. 6. Is *it* far to London? 7. Low-born men like to lord *it* over their inferiors. 8. *It* is I. 9. I will fight *it* out on this line if *it* takes all summer. 10. *It* will soon strike ten. 11. They footed *it* through the streets. 12. *It* is growing dark fast.

135. Uses of the Possessive Forms.—Each of the personal pronouns except "he" and "it" has two possessives in each number: namely, "my," "mine;" "our," "ours;" "thy," "thine;" "your," "yours;" "her," "hers;" "their," "theirs."

"My," "our," "thy," "your," "her," and "their" are always followed by nouns indicating the thing possessed: as, "*My* new sled."

In Biblical and poetical language "mine" and "thine" are used before nouns beginning with a vowel sound or "h:" as,

"If *thine* enemy hunger, feed him."
"Stretch forth *thine* hand."

In ordinary discourse "mine" and "thine," and the forms ending in "s" ("ours," "yours," "hers," "theirs"), are never followed by nouns, but are used only as substantives. They represent both the possessor and the thing possessed, and are equivalent to a noun in the nominative or the objective case modified by a possessive: as, "This book is *mine*" (i. e., "my book"); "*Yours* (i. e., "your book") is on the table." "His" is often used in a similar manner.

Caution.—No apostrophe is used in writing the possessive case of pronouns.

EXERCISE 135.

Construct sentences containing the possessive forms of each of the personal pronouns, both singular and plural, and tell how each form is used.

136. Uses of the Nominative Forms.—The nominative forms of personal pronouns—"I," "we," "thou," "he," "she," "they"—are used mainly in the following constructions:—

1. *Subject of a verb:* as, "*I* am young;" "*We* are coming;" "*He* fell;" "*She* laughed;" "*They* live in New Orleans."

2. *Attribute complement:* as, "Is it *I?*" "It was not *we;*" "Was it *he?*" "I think it was *she;*" "No, it was *they.*"

Exception.—The attribute complement of the infinitive *to be* is in the *objective* case if the infinitive has a subject; as, "He knew it to be *me*" (123).

3. *Vocative:* as, "O *thou* who hearest prayer."

4. *Nominative absolute:* as, "*He* being there, we said nothing about it."

137. Uses of the Objective Forms.—The objective forms of the personal pronouns—"me," "us," "thee," "him," "her," "them,"—are used mainly in the following constructions:—

1. *Direct object:* as, "Help *us*, O Lord."

2. *Indirect object:* as, "Give *me* your hand."

3. *Object of preposition:* as, "Show it to *them.*"

4. *Subject of infinitive:* as, "Did you see *him* fall?"

Exclamations.—In exclamations either the nominative or the objective is used: as, "O, unhappy I!" "O, wretched me!"

NOTE.—In the middle of the sixteenth century the distinction between the nominative and the objective began to break down, and "me," "thee," "us," "you," "him," "her," and "them" were often treated as nominatives. In the case of "ye" and "you"

this confusion became permanently established in the language, "you" being now the regular form for both nominative and objective. In the other pronouns the original distinction between the cases gradually reasserted itself, and is, perhaps, more strongly insisted on now than at any period since the sixteenth century.

The case of "you" and "it," which have the same form for both nominative and objective, must be determined from the construction.

EXERCISE 136.

Tell the case and construction of each personal pronoun in Exercise 20; *in Exercise* 38; *in Exercise* 74.

EXERCISE 137.

To the Teacher.—In order that both eye and ear may be trained to correct forms of expression, it is a good plan, after the blanks in this and similar exercises have been filled, to write on the board such sentences as give pupils trouble, and to have them read aloud again and again.

Another helpful exercise to the same end is to let pupils repeat rapidly such forms as "It is I," "It is he," "It is she;" "It is not we," "It is not they;" "Is it I?" etc., using in succession different nominative forms, and the affirmative, interrogative, and negative forms of the verb.

Insert the proper form of pronoun in each blank, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. *I, me.*

1. Who will go? ——.
2. He is taller than ——.
3. She knew it to be ——.
4. He is not so old as ——.
5. Wait for Helen and ——.
6. She knew that it was ——.
7. She will come, and —— too.
8. You and —— will go together.

9. May Annie and —— go home?
10. It was —— that gave the alarm.
11. If you were ——, would you go?
12. Will you go with John and ——?
13. Jessie gave Roy and —— a kitten.
14. She let Annie and —— come home.
15. Yes, you and —— were both invited.
16. It makes no difference to you or ——.
17. She invited you and —— to go driving.
18. Everyone is going except you and ——.
19. The kite was made for Harry and ——.
20. Father expects you or —— to meet him.
21. Between you and ——, he is losing his mind.
22. Which do you think is the older, Carrie or ——?
23. When you saw Mary and ——, we were walking home.
24. Dr. Holmes shook hands with the girls, —— among the rest.

II. *We, us.*

1. He knew it was ——.
2. He knew it to be ——.
3. It was —— whom you saw.
4. —— boys are going swimming.
5. They play golf more than ——.
6. They know that as well as ——.
7. Everybody was late except ——.
8. Our parents are wiser than ——.
9. The Smiths are going, and —— too.
10. The Browns, as well as ——, are invited.
11. It isn't for such as —— to ride in coaches.
12. That is new doctrine among —— Americans.
13. He took a picture of —— girls sitting in the boat.

III. *He, him.*

1. I knew it was ——.
2. I knew it to be ——.
3. Was it —— you saw?
4. It must have been ——.
5. —— that is idle, reprove.
6. His sister is darker than ——.
7. If I were ——, I wouldn't go.
8. Whom can I trust, if not ——?
9. —— and James played together.
10. Let —— who can answer this question.
11. What were you and —— talking about?
12. Was it —— who objected to our going?
13. To William and —— belongs all the credit.
14. It makes no difference to either you or ——.
15. I shook hands with all, —— among the rest.
16. Not many could have played as well as ——.
17. Have you ever seen Fred and —— together?
18. What else can you expect from such as ——?
19. There isn't much difference between you and —
20. —— that overcometh will I make a pillar in the temple.

IV. *She, her.*

1. I am stronger than ——.
2. It was —— or her mother.
3. I wouldn't go if I were ——.
4. —— and Constance sang a duet.
5. Was it —— that came yesterday?
6. When will you and —— come again?
7. Father told you and —— to stay here.
8. Grace and —— met at dancing school.
9. I invited them all, —— among the rest.
10. With Edith and —— I have no trouble.

11. Very few girls can play as well as ——.
12. What can you expect from such as ——?
13. I supposed the tall, stately lady was ——.
14. I supposed the tall, stately lady to be ——.
15. What is the trouble between you and ——?
16. Girls like you and —— should know better.
17. Everybody came except —— and her brother.
18. Have you ever seen Sarah and —— together?
19. Father is afraid to let you or —— drive the colt.

v. *They, them.*

1. It was ——.
2. It must have been ——.
3. We are not so poor as ——.
4. I know it to have been ——.
5. I never saw Guy and —— together.
6. —— that talk must stay after school.
7. —— that talk I will keep after school.
8. It isn't for such as —— to dictate to us.
9. None so blind as —— that will not see.
10. Let none touch it but —— that are clean.
11. Their opponents were heavier than ——.
12. It makes no difference to either you or ——.
13. It could not have been ——, for —— were at home.
14. Few school-teachers could have done as well as ——.

138. Use of Gender Forms.—In the very nature of things pronouns should be of the same gender and number as the nouns for which they stand. The following peculiar uses of gender forms require special mention **(108, 109)**:—

1. Words like *trout* and *child*, which apply to both male and female objects, are referred to by the neuter pronouns "it" and "its" when the object named is thought of as a mere thing, the sex

being unknown or unimportant: as, "King Midas took a nice little *trout* on his plate, and touched *its* tail with his finger;" "The child reached out *its* little hands."

2. Words like *laborer* and *person*, which apply to both men and women, are referred to by the masculine pronouns "he," "his," and "him" when there is no desire to emphasize distinctions of sex: as, "The laborer is worthy of *his* hire;" "Let every person do as *he* likes." In such cases "he," "his," and "him" stand for mankind in general, and include women as well as men.

3. Sometimes *animals* are referred to by "he" or "she," even when no distinction of sex is intended. In such cases the masculine pronoun is used if the speaker fancies the animal to possess masculine qualities, such as strength, fierceness; the feminine pronoun, if the speaker thinks the animal's qualities are rather feminine, such as timidity, gentleness. Examples are: "The tiger steals silently on *his* prey;" "The hare ran for *her* life."

4. *Personified objects* remarkable for size, power, strength, or other manly qualities, are referred to by masculine pronouns; those remarkable for beauty, gentleness, grace, or other womanly qualities, are referred to by feminine pronouns. Examples are: "The sun sheds *his* beams on rich and poor alike;" "The moon has hid *her* face behind a cloud."

EXERCISE 138.

1. *Review Exercise* 116.

2. *Fill each blank with a pronoun, and give the reason for its gender:—*

1. Every author has —— faults.
2. A writer should be careful with —— pronouns.
3. Venice sat in state, throned on —— hundred isles.
4. A person who is rude in —— table manners will be disliked.
5. Winter had bound the lakes and rivers fast in —— icy grasp.
6. The mocking-bird shook from —— little throat floods of delirious music.

7. The "Oceanic" is a huge steamer. —— is longer than the "Great Eastern."

8. A calf can distinguish —— mother's lowing from that of a hundred other cows.

9. When a cat comes near a light —— contracts and elongates the pupils of —— eyes.

10. The polar bear suffers so much from heat that —— cannot live long in warm climates; therefore —— is seldom seen in menageries.

139. Use of Number Forms.—Difficulties in the use of the number forms of personal pronouns arise mainly in connection with such expressions as "anybody," "everybody," "each," "either," "neither," and "nobody." Such expressions, in spite of the comprehensive meaning of some of them, are grammatically singular; and in literary English they are referred to by singular pronouns: as, "If anybody calls, ask *him* to wait." If the writer considered reference to sex worth while, he[1] would say, "ask *him or her* to wait." Ordinarily, however, he would use "him" only, taking for granted the application to women.

In colloquial English such expressions as "anybody," "everybody," "each," "either," etc., are referred to by the genderless plurals "they," "their," "them:" as, "If anybody calls, ask *them* to wait." This usage is partly an attempt to find a pronoun that will stand for both "he" and "she," and partly a reflection of the comprehensive meaning of "anybody," "everybody," etc. It is shunned by those who have an ear for grammatical accuracy.

[1] Note the author's unconscious use of "he" to refer to "writer," which here includes in its meaning women as well as men.

EXERCISE 139.

Fill the blanks with the proper pronouns:—

1. Each must take —— turn.
2. Anyone can do this if —— tries.
3. Has everyone finished —— work?
4. Every girl can do this if —— tries.
5. Each day and each hour brings —— own duty.
6. Either Mary or Lizzie will lend you —— pencil.
7. Each pupil was requested to name —— favorite color.
8. Probably everybody is eloquent at least once in —— life.
9. Man after man passed, carrying —— golf clubs with ——.
10. Each of the girls married well, at least in —— own opinion.
11. Each of the children married well, at least in —— own opinion.
12. Whoever loves —— school should do —— best to keep its school tone high.
13. Many a brave man met —— death in an obscure moment of the war with Spain.
14. Whoso keepeth —— mouth and —— tongue, keepeth —— soul from troubles.
15. Everybody believes the world is watching ——, but —— is usually mistaken; for the world is generally doing what —— is doing, namely, thinking of itself.
16. He does not know a single belle; even if he did, —— would not care to dance with so stupid a fellow as he is.
17. The man and his wife were both there; but neither would tell what —— had seen.[1]

140. Compound Personal Pronouns.—Examine the form and uses of the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:—

[1] Observe that the meaning of this sentence changes according as we fill the blank with "he," "she," or "they."

(*a*) She *herself* told me.
(*b*) We saw the Queen *herself*.
(*c*) He cut *himself*.
(*d*) They think too much of *themselves*.

You observe that "herself," "himself," and "themselves" are formed from personal pronouns by adding the words "self" or "selves;" and that they are used (*a*, *b*) for emphasis, or (*c*, *d*) after a verb or preposition to refer back to the subject of the verb.

Definition.—A pronoun formed from a personal pronoun by adding "self" or "selves" is called a **Compound Personal Pronoun.**

Definition.—A compound personal pronoun used after a verb or a preposition to refer back to the subject of the verb is called a **Reflexive Pronoun.**

The compound personal pronouns are *myself*, *ourself* (editorial or majestic), *thyself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, and *themselves*. Notice that in the first and second person the compound is made from the possessive form of the simple pronoun, and in the third person from the objective form.

The compound personal pronouns have the same form for both nominative and objective, and have no possessive. The place of a possessive is supplied by "my own," "your own," etc.: as, "He keeps *his own* horse;" "He has a house of *his own*."

In the last sentence the phrase "his own" is used substantively as the object of the preposition "of," like the possessive "mine" in "He is a friend of *mine*" **(135)**.

141. Uses of the Compound Personal Pronouns.—The compound personal pronouns are properly used as follows:—

1. *For emphasis:* as, "I will do it *myself;*" "The great globe *itself* shall dissolve;" "We saw the king *himself*."

2. *As reflexives:* as, "I cut *myself;*" "We told him to give *himself* plenty of time."

Besides these well-established uses, the compound personal pronouns are sometimes employed as substitutes for simple personal pronouns: as, "She invited Ethel and *myself* to go driving." This usage is avoided by the most careful writers.

Sometimes, especially in poetry, a simple pronoun is used reflexively: as, "Now I lay *me* down to sleep;" "He looked about *him*."

EXERCISE 140.

1. *In the following sentences point out the compound personal pronouns, and tell whether they are used reflexively or for emphasis:—*

1. I myself have seen him. 2. I think myself happy. 3. Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself. 4. Quit yourselves like men. 5. He will tell you himself. 6. Whosoever shall exalt himself shall be abased. 7. Sinai itself trembled at the presence of God. 8. You have yourselves heard the report. 9. Why should you be so cruel to yourselves? 10. It is usually best to study by ourselves.

2. *Construct sentences illustrating the use of each of the compound personal pronouns for emphasis; as a reflexive.*

II. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

142. Demonstrative Pronouns Defined.—Examine the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:—

This is my book; *that* is yours.
These are my books; *those* are yours.

In these sentences "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those") are used to point out certain objects. Each is, in a way, equivalent to a gesture.

Definition.—A pronoun used to point out is called a **Demonstrative Pronoun.**

The only demonstrative pronouns are "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those").

143. Uses of the Demonstrative Pronouns.—"This" and "these" are used to indicate persons or things near in space, time, or thought; "that" and "those" indicate persons or things farther away: as, "*These* are my jewels;" "Our rivers are larger than *those* of Europe."

When "this" and "that" are followed by nouns they are **Pronominal Adjectives:** as, "*This book* is mine;" "*That word* is hard to pronounce."

EXERCISE 141.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the demonstrative pronouns, singular and plural.

III. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

144. Interrogative Pronouns Defined.—Examine the italicized pronouns in the following sentences:—

Who is he?	*Whom* did you see?	*Which* is he?
Who is she?	*What* is that?	*Which* is yours?
Who are they?	*What* are these?	*Which* are yours?
Whose is this?	*What* do you want?	*Which* do you prefer?

These pronouns, you observe, are questioning words, "who," "whose," and "whom" asking for names of persons, "what" asking for names of things, and "which" asking for a selection from a group of persons or things. Each stands for the noun or pronoun that answers the question.

Definition.—A pronoun used to ask questions is called an **Interrogative Pronoun.**

Tabulating the forms used in the illustrative sentences, we find that the only interrogative pronoun which is inflected is "who," and that it is declined as follows:—

	Singular and Plural.
Nominative:	who
Possessive:	whose
Objective:	whom

The interrogative "whether," meaning "which of the two," is no longer used as a pronoun, though it is found in the English Bible: as, "Whether is easier?"

When "which" and "what" are followed by nouns they are **Pronominal Adjectives:** as, "*Which book* is yours?" "*What* new *trick* is this?"

EXERCISE 142.

Point out the interrogative pronouns in the following sentences, and tell the construction of each:—

1. Who ran to help me when I fell? 2. What are the wild waves saying? 3. What care I how fair she be? 4. What do you read, my lord? 5. What is so rare as a day in June? 6. What did you ask for? 7. Whose dog is that? 8. Whom did you see? 9. Whom were you speaking to? 10. Which of the samples have you selected? 11. Who do you think she is? 12. Whom do you take her to be?

145. Interrogative Pronouns Distinguished.—Ordinarily "who" asks for names of persons, "what" for names of things; but sometimes "what" has a personal reference: as, "*What* is he?—a lawyer?" In such cases "what" asks for a *description*, in distinction from "who," which asks for *identity*: as, "*Who* is he?—the new minister?"

"Which" is selective; that is, it implies that the right one is to be selected from a number of persons or things: as, "*Which* is she?" "*Which* of the pictures do you like best?" "*Which* have you decided to take?"

EXERCISE 143.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the interrogative pronoun "who;" the ordinary use of the interrogative "what;" the personal use of the interrogative "what;" the use of the interrogative "which."

146. "Who" or "Whom."—In spoken English "whom," as an interrogative form, has been practically abandoned by most persons as an unnecessary and cumbersome inflection; but in literary English, and in the conversation of persons who have a strong feeling for grammatical consistency, "who" is used only in nominative relations, and "whom" in objective relations: as, "*Who* is that?" "*Whom* did you see?" "By *whom* was this written?" "*Whom* are you making that sofa-pillow for?"

EXERCISE 144.

Insert in each of the blanks the proper form of pronoun ("who" or "whom") according to literary usage, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. —— do you mean?
2. —— have we here?
3. —— will you invite?
4. —— did you give it to?
5. —— do you think I am?
6. —— are you writing to?
7. —— were you talking to?
8. I don't know —— to send.
9. —— do you take me to be?
10. I don't know —— to ask for.
11. —— was that speaking to you?
12. I do not know —— he has met.
13. —— did you say sat beside you?
14. —— do you think will be elected?
15. —— do you expect to call on next?
16. —— do you think it was that called?
17. I do not know —— will finish the work.
18. He is going to be married to I don't know ——.
19. —— should I meet yesterday but my old friend Jones?

147. Direct and Indirect Questions Distinguished.—Compare the following sentences:—

Maude asked, "*Who is he?*"
Maude asked *who he was.*

In the first sentence Maude's question is given in her exact words, and the question is said to be quoted. In the second sentence the question

blends with the principal clause, and the original words are changed.

Definition.—A question expressed in the exact words of the speaker is called a **Direct Question.**

Definition.—A question used as a dependent clause, with changes from the original words of the speaker, is called an **Indirect Question.**

A direct question may be (1) *independent:* as, "Who is he?" or (2) *dependent:* as, "Maude asked, 'Who is he?'"

Indirect questions depend on expressions implying *inquiry, doubt, knowledge, ignorance,* or the like: as, "Maude *wondered* who he was;" "Maude *discovered* who he was;" "Maude *did not know* who he was;" "Maude *told* us who he was." (The direct question presented to Maude's mind was, "Who is he?")

EXERCISE 145.

Construct three direct questions, and then change them into the indirect form.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

148. Relative Pronouns Defined.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*a*) The man thinks the world turns round. The man is giddy.

(*b*) The man *that* is giddy thinks the world turns round.

In (*a*) we have two separate sentences about "the man," with nothing to show that they are related. In (*b*) the two sentences are brought into their proper relation by the word "that," which takes the place of the noun "man" as subject of the second sentence, and also connects this sentence with "man" in the first sentence, as a modifying clause. In other words, it is both pronoun and connective.

Definition.—A pronoun which attaches to its antecedent a subordinate clause of which it is a part is called a **Relative Pronoun.**

A relative pronoun is so called because it relates directly to a substantive in the principal clause.

EXERCISE 146.

Point out the relative pronouns in Exercise 44, *and give their antecedents.*

149. Relative Clauses.—A clause introduced by a relative pronoun is called a **Relative Clause.**

Compare the relative clauses in the following sentences:—

(*a*) Water *that is stagnant* is unwholesome.

(*b*) The water, *which was beautifully clear*, gently lapped the side of the boat.

(*c*) She brought the boy a glass of water, *which he drank eagerly*.

In the first sentence the relative clause, "that is stagnant," limits or restricts the general meaning of "water" to the particular sort that is in mind. The clause cannot be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence.

In the second sentence the relative clause, "which was beautifully clear," describes the water which the speaker has in mind, but does not restrict the meaning of the word "water." The clause might be removed without injury to the sentence, being in fact parenthetical.

In the third sentence the relative clause, "which

he drank eagerly," neither limits nor describes the word "water," but merely carries on the narrative, like the second member of a compound sentence. "Which" is, in fact, here equivalent to "and it," and the relative clause, though subordinate in form, is logically coördinate with the first clause.

Definition.—A relative clause which limits or restricts the meaning of the antecedent is called a **Restrictive Relative Clause.**

Definition.—A relative clause which describes the antecedent without restricting its meaning is called a **Descriptive Relative Clause.**

Definition.—A relative clause which neither describes nor limits, but merely carries on the narrative, is called a **Progressive Relative Clause.**

Descriptive and progressive relative clauses, being either parenthetical or independent in their nature, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Restrictive relative clauses should not be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

EXERCISE 147.

1. *Point out the relative clauses in Exercises* 44 *and* 52, *and tell whether they are restrictive, descriptive, or progressive.*

2. *Construct a sentence containing a restrictive relative clause; a descriptive relative clause; a progressive relative clause.*

150. Relative Pronouns Distinguished.—Examine the forms of the relative pronouns in the following sentences:—

He prayeth best *who* loveth best.
The lady *who* went out is my aunt.
They *who* will not work must starve.
The boy *whose* manners you liked is my brother.
I know the person of *whom* you speak.

The letter *which* came this morning was from Ruth.
We played a new game, the name of *which* I forget.
I still have the letter *which* Ruth wrote last week.

This is the house *that* Jack built.
Happy is the man *that* findeth wisdom.

What (i. e., *That which*) is done cannot be undone.
What (i. e., *That which*) you say is true.

From these examples we see that the ordinary relative pronouns are "who," "which," "that," and "what." Tabulating the various forms, we find that only "who" is inflected, and that it is declined as follows:—

	Singular and Plural.
Nominative:	who
Possessive:	whose
Objective:	whom

Who, *whose*, and *whom* are used chiefly of persons, but sometimes of animals: as, "He prayeth best *who* loveth best;" "The robins have succeeded in driving off the blue jays *who* used to build in our pines." "Whose" is occasionally used of things **(153)**.

Which, as a relative pronoun, is used of animals or things. Sometimes it refers to an idea or thought expressed by a preceding phrase or clause: as, "This description may seem much exaggerated, *which* it certainly is not;" "I relieved his pain, *which* made him very grateful."

That is used of either persons or things. It is always very closely connected with its antecedent in both meaning and position, never being used when there is any pause between the relative clause and the antecedent. Hence it is never used to introduce a clause that is merely descriptive or progressive. We say, "Water *that* [or, *which*] is stagnant is unwholesome;" "The water, *which* was beautifully clear, lapped the sides of the boat." Another peculiarity of *that* is that it never has a preposition before it. We say, "The book *of which* you told me," or, "The book *that* you told me *of*," putting the preposition last when "that" is substituted for "which."

What is peculiar in that it combines the functions of both antecedent and relative pronoun: as,

"I mean { *what* / *that which* } I say."

"Who," "which," and "that" introduce adjective clauses; clauses introduced by "what" are substantive clauses.

To the Teacher.—Some grammarians would make "that" obligatory whenever the relative clause is restrictive, reserving "who" and "which" exclusively for clauses that are merely descriptive or progressive. According to them, "He prayeth best *who* loveth best" ought to be "He prayeth best *that* loveth best." But this obligatory use of "that" in restrictive clauses has never been a rule of English speech, and is not likely to become one, partly because of the impossibility of using "that" after a preposition, and partly because of the disagreeable sound of such combinations as "*That* remark *that* I made yesterday." As a rule, euphony decides in restrictive clauses between "who" or "which" and "that."

EXERCISE 148.

Insert appropriate relative pronouns in the blanks in the following sentences, and give the reason for your choice :—

1. Man is the only animal —— can talk.
2. Time —— is lost is never found again.
3. The dog —— bit the child has been killed.
4. That is the man —— spoke to us yesterday.
5. We have a mastiff, —— follows us everywhere.
6. I met the boatman —— took me across the ferry.
7. The crow dropped the cheese, —— the fox then ate.
8. I worked six problems, —— was the best I could do.
9. Do you know that man —— is just entering the car?
10. Shakespeare was the most expressive man —— ever lived.
11. The cat —— you despise so much is a very useful animal.[1]
12. We have done many things —— we ought not to have done.
13. He —— does all —— he can does all —— can be expected.
14. Her hair, —— was dark brown, was gathered in a Grecian knot.
15. Why should we consult Charles, —— knows nothing of the matter?
16. At the corner I met a policeman, —— consented to go with me.
17. —— pleased me most, and —— has been most frequently mentioned by visitors to Florence, was the profusion of flowers —— one sees there.

EXERCISE 149.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of the relatives "who," "which," "that," and "what."

[1] The punctuation of this sentence, and probably the choice of pronoun, will vary with the meaning.

151. Gender, Number, and Person of Relative Pronouns.—In the nature of things the gender, number, and person of a relative pronoun are the same as those of its antecedent, but they are never indicated by the form of the relative. "Who," for example, may be singular or plural, masculine or feminine, and may refer to the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of: as, "I, *who* am your friend, would not pain you needlessly;" "You, *who* are my trusted friend, should not deceive me;" "They *who* refuse to work must starve." Since relatives thus agree in number and person with their antecedents, it follows that the form of a verb used after a relative should be the same as that which we should use after its antecedent.

EXERCISE 150.

Tell which of the italicized forms is right, and give the reason:—

1. She is one of the best mothers that *has* (*have*) ever lived.

CAUTION.—The antecedent of "that" is "mothers."

2. My room is one of those that *overlook* (*overlooks*) the lake.

3. That is one of the best books that *was* (*were*) ever written.

4. She is one of the writers who *is* (*are*) destined to be immortal.

5. It was one of the best games that *has* (*have*) ever been played on our field.

6. You are not the first man that *has* (*have*) been deceived by appearances.

7. He is one of those restless boys who *is* (*are*) always wanting to do something.

8. One of his many good traits that *come* (*comes*) to my mind was his modesty.

152. Case of Relative Pronouns.—The case of a relative pronoun has nothing to do with its antecedent, but is determined by its use in the clause in which it stands. It may be—

(1) *The subject of a verb:* as, "The lady *who* went out is my aunt."

(2) *A possessive modifier:* as, "The boy *whose* manners you liked is my brother."

(3) *A direct object:* as, "He *whom* thou lovest is sick."

(4) *The object of a preposition:* as, "I know the person of *whom* you speak."

In Milton's expression, "Satan, than whom none higher sat," "than whom," found in all the best authors, but now going out of use, is an idiomatic exception to the rules governing the choice between "who" and "whom."

CAUTION.—To determine the case of the relative "what" consider only its relation to the words of the substantive clause in which it stands. In "*What* followed was only a natural consequence" it is the subject of "followed." In "*What* he did was well done" it is the object of "did." In "*What* I asked for was denied me" it is the object of the preposition "for." In each sentence the entire relative clause is the subject of the verb "was."

EXERCISE 151.

Tell the construction and the case of each relative pronoun in Exercises 44 *and* 148.

EXERCISE 152.

Insert the proper form of pronoun ("*who*," "*whom*") *in each of the following blanks, and give the reason for your choice:—*

1. She is a girl —— I know is trustworthy.
2. She is a girl —— I know to be trustworthy.
3. We recommend only those —— we can trust.

4. I met a man —— I have no doubt was your uncle.

5. A lady entered, ——, I afterwards learned, was his aunt.

6. He gave the watch to Norman, —— he thinks will take care of it.

7. They have found the woman —— they thought had been murdered.

8. We like to be with those —— we love and —— we know love us, let them be —— they may.

153. "Whose" or "Of which."—"Whose," which is properly the possessive of the masculine or feminine "who," is sometimes used of neuter objects as a substitute for the longer and harsher "of which:" as, "The undiscovered country from *whose* bourne no traveler returns." When this substitution is not required by euphony it is avoided by careful writers.

EXERCISE 153.

Tell which of the italicized expressions you consider preferable, and give your reason:—

1. She asked for a book *whose name* (*the name of which*) I had never heard.

2. The "White Captive" is a woman bound to a tree, in *whose bark* (*the bark of which*) arrows are sticking.

3. Another side of one's education is the scientific—a side *whose importance* (*the importance of which*) is fast being recognized the world over.

4. Through the heavy door *whose bronze network* (*the bronze network of which*) closes the place of his rest, let us enter the church itself.

5. I swept the horizon, and saw at one glance the glorious elevations, on *whose tops* (*the tops of which*) the sun kindled all the melodies and harmonies of light.

6. Beneath the sluggish waves of the Dead Sea lay the once proud cities of the plain, *whose grave* (*the grave of which*) was dug by the thunder of the heavens.

7. Men may be ready to fight to the death for a religion *whose creed* (*the creed of which*) they do not understand, and *whose precepts* (*the precepts of which*) they habitually disobey.

154. "As" and "But" as Relatives.—After the words "such" and "same" the word "as" is used as a relative pronoun: as, "Tears, such *as* angels weep, burst forth." After "such" the relative is always "as." After "same" it is "as" or "that," with a difference in meaning. "The same as" usually means "of the same kind:" as, "My trouble is the *same as* yours." "The same that" means "one and the same:" as, "He uses the *same* books *that* his brother does." This distinction, however, does not hold in elliptical sentences, where "the same that" is never found: as, "He uses the *same* books *as* his brother." Occasionally "who" or "which" is used instead of "that:" as, "This is the very same rogue *who* sold us the spectacles" (Goldsmith); "With the same minuteness *which* her predecessor had exhibited" (Scott).

Occasionally "as" is used as a substitute for "which" to refer to a preceding idea or thought: as, "The ship was frozen in, *as* often happens in polar regions."

"But" is sometimes used as a relative pronoun equivalent to "that not" or "who not:" as,

> There is not a wife in the west country
> *But* has heard of the well of St. Keyne.

EXERCISE 154.

1. *Construct sentences illustrating the uses of relatives after "such" and "same."*

2. *Fill the blanks in the following sentences with the proper relative ("as," "that"), and give the reason for your choice:—*

1. Such —— I have give I thee.
2. This is the same book —— my father used.
3. I hold the same political opinions —— my father.
4. I hold the same political opinions —— my father holds.
5. These are not the same tramps —— were here yesterday.
6. She is the same merry girl since her marriage —— she was before it.

155. Relative Pronouns Omitted.—The relative "that" (or its substitute), when it would be the object of a verb or a preposition, is often omitted: as, "The book [*that* or *which*] I left here is gone;" "The girl [*that* or *whom*] you are looking for has not come yet."

Occasionally a relative pronoun in the nominative case is omitted: as, "'Tis distance [*that*] lends enchantment to the view."

156. Compound Relative Pronouns.—Examine the forms and uses of the relative pronouns in the following sentences:—

Whoever (i. e., Any person who) goes must start at once.

Whosoever (i. e., Any person who) exalteth himself shall be abased.

Take *whichever* (i. e., any which) you want.

Whatever (i. e., Any thing which) he does he does well.

Sell *whatsoever* (i. e., anything which) thou hast, and give to the poor.

With regard to form you observe that the italicized pronouns are made from "who," "which," and "what" by adding "ever" or "soever." With regard to use, (1) they perform the functions of both relative and antecedent, like "what" (**150**); and (2) they are very indefinite in their meaning, being equivalent to "any person who," "any which," or "anything which."

Definition.—A pronoun formed from "who," "which," or "what" by adding the suffix "ever" or "soever" is called, with reference to its form, a **Compound Relative Pronoun**; with reference to its meaning, an **Indefinite Relative Pronoun.**

Other compound relatives, seldom used now, are "whoso" and "whichsoever."

"Who," "which," and "what" are sometimes used as indefinite relatives: as, "*Who* steals my purse steals trash;" "Take *which* you will;" "Do *what* you can."

157. "Whoever" or "Whomever."—The only difficulty likely to arise in connection with the use of indefinite relatives lies in the words "whoever" and "whomever." One is a nominative form, the other an objective. "Give it to *whoever* comes to the door" and "Give it to *whomever* you see" are both correct. "Whoever" is the subject of "comes;" "whomever" is the object of "see." In each sentence the object of the preposition "to" is the relative clause, used substantively.

"Whosoever" and "whomsoever" are used in the same way: as, "Unto *whomsoever* much is given, of him shall be much required;" "*Whosoever* exalteth himself shall be abased."

EXERCISE 155.

Fill the blanks with the proper forms ("whoever," "whomever"), and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Ask —— you meet.
2. Elect —— you wish.
3. I will entertain —— you send.
4. We will give it to —— you say.
5. —— did it ought to be ashamed of himself.
6. We will give it to —— seems to need it most.

V. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

158. Indefinite Pronouns Defined.—Examine the italicized words in the following sentences:—

Some have gone.
Each took his turn.

You observe that "some" and "each" are substitutes for names, but do not refer definitely to any particular individuals.

Definition.—A pronoun that does not refer to any particular individual is called an **Indefinite Pronoun.**

The indefinite pronouns may be grouped as follows:—

1. *Distributives, referring to individuals of a class taken separately:* each, either, neither.

2. *Words of number or quantity:* all, any, both, few, many, much, several, some, aught, naught, one, none.

3. *Comparatives:* such, other, another.

4. *Phrasal pronouns:* each other, one another (called *reciprocals*): a certain one, many a one.

When these words accompany nouns, they must be classed as adjectives: as. "*Each boy* took his turn;" "*Some men* are born great."

EXERCISE 156.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of each of the indefinite pronouns.

159. How to Parse Pronouns.—To parse a pronoun one must give its—

(1) Class.
(2) Antecedent (if it has one).
(3) Gender.
(4) Number.
(5) Person.
(6) Construction.
(7) Case.

EXERCISE 157.

Parse the pronouns in the following sentences:—

1. Love thy neighbor as thyself.

2. God helps them that help themselves.

3. Let not him that girdeth on his harness boast himself as he that putteth it off.

4. I find the Englishman to be him of all men who stands firmest in his shoes.

5. Ye are the salt of the earth: but if the salt have lost his savor, wherewith shall it be salted?

6. I am monarch of all I survey,
   My right there is none to dispute.

7. There's a divinity that shapes our ends,
   Rough-hew them how we will.

8. What's in a name? That which we call a rose
   By any other name would smell as sweet.

9. 'Tis with our judgments as our watches,—none
   Go just alike, yet each believes his own.

10. Go, lovely rose!
Tell her that wastes her time and me
That now she knows,
When I resemble her to thee,
How sweet and fair she seems to be.

11. My mind to me a kingdom is;
Such present joys therein I find,
That it excels all other bliss,
That earth affords or grows by kind:
Though much I want which most would have,
Yet still my mind forbids to crave.

12. Some have too much, yet still do crave;
I little have, and seek no more:
They are but poor, though much they have,
And I am rich with little store:
They poor, I rich; they beg, I give;
They lack, I have; they pine, I live.

CHAPTER V

OF ADJECTIVES

AN **Adjective** is a word joined by way of description or limitation to a noun or a pronoun (**85**).

160. Classification of Adjectives.—Adjectives may be arranged in two general classes, as follows:—

1. **Descriptive Adjectives,** denoting *qualities* or *attributes* of objects: as, "A *black* hat."

2. **Limiting Adjectives,** denoting *which, how many*, or *how much:* as, "*Yonder* mountains;" "*Three* kittens;" "*Great* pleasure."

Among limiting adjectives we distinguish **Numeral Adjectives,** denoting *number:* as, "*Three* kittens;" "*Second* base;" and **Pronominal Adjectives,** words often used as *pronouns:* as, "*This* (adjective) hat is mine;" "*This* (pronoun) is yours." Such words are pronouns when they stand for nouns; adjectives when they accompany nouns (**143, 144, 158**).

161. Singular and Plural Adjectives.—The only adjectives that have separate forms for singular and plural are the pronominal adjectives "this" (plural "these") and "that" (plural "those"). Mistakes in the use of these forms frequently occur in connection with such words as "sort" and "kind," which are grammatically singular. The following sentences are correct: "*That kind* of house is common in New England;" "How do you like *this sort* of horses?"

EXERCISE 158.

Insert the proper form ("*this*," "*these*," "*that*," "*those*") *in each of the following blanks*:—

1. I do not like —— sort of men.
2. We want no more of —— sort of goods.
3. What do you think of —— kind of golf clubs?
4. Young gentlemen should let —— sort of thing alone.
5. I always delight in overthrowing —— sort of schemes.

162. Comparison of Adjectives.—Examine the adjectives in the following sentences:—

This is a *high* mountain.
That is a *higher* mountain.
Yonder is the *highest* mountain of all.

"High," "higher," and "highest" are all forms of the same adjective, and all denote the same quality; but they denote it in different *degrees*. "High" merely denotes a quality; "higher" denotes that the object described has more of that quality than another object with which it is compared; "highest" denotes that the object described has the most of the quality.

Definition.—A difference in the form of an adjective to denote degree is called **Comparison.**

Definition.—The simple form of an adjective is called the **Positive Degree.**

Definition.—The form of an adjective that represents an object as having more of a quality than another object is called the **Comparative Degree.**

Definition.—The form of an adjective that represents an object as having the most of a quality is called the **Superlative Degree.**

Sometimes the superlative degree is used when no comparison is intended: as, "My dearest mother." In such cases the superlative inflection has nearly the same force as the adverb "very."

163. Methods of Comparison.—Examine the italicized forms in the following sentences:—

I never knew a { *nobler* / *more noble* } man.

He is the { *noblest* / *most noble* } man I ever saw.

From this it appears that there are two ways of comparing adjectives:—

1. By **Inflection,** adding "er" and "est" to the positive to form the comparative and the superlative.

2. By **Phrasal Comparison,** using the adverbs "more" and "most."

Adjectives of one syllable, and some adjectives of two syllables, are usually compared by the addition of "er" and "est."

Some adjectives of two syllables, and all longer adjectives, are usually compared by using "more" and "most."

In general the method of comparison is a matter of taste, determined for the most part by the ear.

EXERCISE 159.

Compare the following adjectives:—

Able, happy, honest, fearless, worldly, lively, careful, particular, unkind, earnest, beautiful, virtuous, proud, ungrateful.

164. Irregular Comparison.—The comparison of the following adjectives is irregular:—

Positive.	Compar.	Superl.
bad, evil, ill	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
fore	former	foremost, first
[forth, *adv.*]	further	furthest
good, well	better	best
late	later, latter	latest, last
little	less	least
many, much	more	most
near	nearer	nearest, next
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest

165. Adjectives Incapable of Comparison.—Some adjectives denote qualities that do not vary in degree: as, "straight," "perfect," "circular," "daily," "square," "round," "untiring." Strictly speaking, such adjectives cannot be compared; yet custom sanctions such expressions as "straighter," "roundest," "more perfect," because they are convenient and their inaccuracy is of no consequence.

166. Use of the Comparative and Superlative.—The comparative degree properly implies a comparison of two things or sets of things; the superlative, of more than two: as, "He is *older* than I:" "She is the *youngest* of the family."

In modern English, however, this distinction is not always followed, good writers frequently using the superlative when only two things are compared: as, "Who was the *first*, Ruth or Maude?" "He is the *best* of the two." In general, when two things or sets of things are compared, the comparative

degree is preferable: as, "Which is the *taller*, Ruth or Maude?"

The words denoting the objects compared are called the "terms" of the comparison. When two objects are compared, the latter term must exclude the former; as, "*Iron* is more useful than *any other metal*." When more than two objects are compared, the latter term must include the former; as, "*Iron* is the most useful of *metals*."

EXERCISE 160.

Construct sentences comparing the following things, using first a comparative, then a superlative form:—

1. The large population of China; the smaller populations of other countries.

Example.—China has a larger population than any other country. China has the largest population of all countries in the world.

2. John, who is very mischievous; other boys in the school, who are less mischievous.

3. Mary's recitations; the poorer recitations of her classmates.

4. The population of London; the population of the other cities in the world.

167. Substitutes for Adjectives.—The function of an adjective may be performed by—

(1) A *noun or a pronoun in the possessive case:* as, "That is *John's* book;" "This is *my* book."

(2) A *prepositional phrase:* as, "The path *by the lake* is shady."

(3) An *infinitive phrase:* as, "Water *to drink* was scarce."

(4) A *participial phrase:* as, "The boy *reciting his lesson* is my brother."

(5) A *clause:* as, "The girl *whom you saw* is my sister."

168. How to Parse an Adjective.—To parse an adjective one must tell—

(1) Its class.

(2) Its comparison.

(3) Its use.

EXERCISE 161.

Parse the adjectives in Exercise **15.**

CHAPTER VI

OF ARTICLES

THE **Articles** are the words "the" and "an" or "a."

The articles always limit nouns, and therefore might be classed as limiting adjectives. But their uses are so peculiar and delicate that it is best to treat them separately.

169. Origin of the Articles.—"The" is a weakened form of the demonstrative pronoun "that."

"An" (shortened to "a" before consonant sounds) is a weakened form of the numeral adjective "one," which was formerly written "ān." In general it always implies oneness, but usually in a vague, indefinite sense that does not belong to the numeral adjective "one."

170. "An" or "A."—The choice between "an" and "a," which are different forms of the same word, is determined by sound. Before a vowel sound "an" is used; before a consonant sound "a" is used.

Caution.—Sound and spelling do not always coincide. For example, "one" and "unit" begin with vowels, but the initial *sounds* are those of the consonants "w" and "y" in "won" and "you;" therefore we say "*a* unit," "such *a* one." "Honor" begins with a consonant, but the initial *sound* is that of the vowel "o" in "onset;" therefore we say "*an* honor."

Usage is divided as to "a" or "an" before words beginning with "h" and accented on the second syllable. We say "*an* historical sketch" or "*a* historical sketch," according to taste.

EXERCISE 162.

Put the proper form of the article "an" or "a" before each of the following expressions:—

Article, onion, union, uniform, uninformed reader, universal belief, useful invention, umpire, unfortunate mistake, eulogy, European, hour, honest man, house, humble dwelling, habitual drunkard, hotel, heroic people, hereditary disposition.

171. The Articles Distinguished.—Compare the italicized expressions in the following sentences:—

Man is mortal.
The child is dying.
A soldier stood on guard.

"Man," unlimited by an article, applies to all mankind. "Child," limited by "the," applies to an individual, singled out as already before the mind. "Soldier," limited by "a," applies to an individual, singled out at random as a representative of his class. "The" points definitely to a particular object; "a" selects one, no matter which.

Definition.—"The" is called the **Definite Article**; "an" or "a" is called the **Indefinite Article.**

172. Uses of the Articles.—In general both the definite and the indefinite article single out individuals from the rest of a class: the definite, a particular individual; the indefinite, any individual. Ordinarily, therefore, they are used, not with proper nouns or names of materials, but with nouns that apply to many objects of the same class. Yet no one principle covers all the uses of articles. These must be learned chiefly through observation and

imitation. It may be helpful, however, to enumerate some of their special functions.

The **Definite Article** is used—

(1) To designate objects as *already before the mind:* as, "One night a wolf fell in with a dog. *The* wolf was all skin and bones, while *the* dog was as fat as he could be."

(2) To designate objects as *near by* or *prominent in the mind:* as, "I sprang to *the* window;" "*The* birds are singing;" "We saw *the* queen;" "There is a higher law than *the* Constitution;" "*The* Scriptures tell the story of *the* Flood."

This use of the article tends to change a common into a proper noun, as indicated frequently by the use of capitals.

(3) To give to a common noun a *representative* or *collective* force: as, "*The* reindeer is a native of Norway."

This use of the article—called the **Generic** (Latin *gener*, "a class")—is borrowed from the French. The English article, as remarked above, *singles out;* the generic article *collects.*

The **Indefinite Article** is used—

(1) In its original numerical sense of "*one:*" as, "Not *a* word was said;" "Two at *a* time."

When nouns have the same form for both singular and plural, this use of the article distinguishes the numbers: as, "He has *a sheep;*" "He has *sheep.*"

(2) In the vague sense of "*a certain:*" as, "One night *a* wolf fell in with *a* dog." (The word "one" in this sentence hardly differs in function from the articles.)

(3) In the sense of "*any*," to single out an individual as the representative of a class: as, "*A* ball is round."

(4) To make a *common noun* of a *proper noun:* as, "*A* Daniel come to judgment."

NOTE.—In "many *a* child," "such *a* person," and similar expressions, the article follows the adjective, instead of preceding it.

EXERCISE 163.

1. *Construct sentences illustrating the common uses of the definite article.*

2. *Construct sentences illustrating the common uses of the indefinite article.*

EXERCISE 164.

Distinguish between—

1. Give me a (one) pen.
2. I have caught (a) cold.
3. A black and (a) white cat.
4. Bring me the (that) candle.
5. Grass (The grass) is green.
6. Earth (The earth) is heavy.
7. I sprang to a (the) window.
8. Birds (The birds) are singing.
9. Men (The men) admired him.
10. He has (a) trout in his basket.
11. Bring me a (the) lighted candle.
12. Trees (The trees) are in blossom.
13. Man (The man) is a strange being.
14. Wanted a cook and (a) housemaid.
15. Men (The men) ran to give the alarm.
16. There were few (a few) friends with him.
17. He behaved with little (a little) reverence.
18. The (That) road crosses the (a) mountain.
19. A man (The man) on the shore rescued her.
20. Mr. Smith (A Mr. Smith) called to see you.
21. If you wish to have virtue (a virtue), you must practice it.
22. Shall I tell you a (the) story of a (the) wolf and a (the) dog?

EXERCISE 165.

Insert the proper article in each blank, if an article is needed; if no article is needed, leave the place blank:

1. —— lion is —— king of beasts.
2. What kind of —— bird is that?
3. My favorite flower is —— violet.
4. At —— present he is out of work.
5. What sort of —— pen do you like?
6. Colonel Waring died of —— yellow fever.
7. He well deserves the name of —— scholar.
8. Omit —— third and —— fourth page (pages).
9. An adjective modifies a noun or —— pronoun.
10. There are two articles, the definite and —— indefinite.
11. Nouns have two numbers, —— singular and —— plural.
12. Two figures came slowly down the road; —— one was a man, —— other a boy.

173. Caution.—Not every "the" is an article, nor every "a."

In "*The* more they get *the* more they want," and similar constructions, "the" is an adverb, a survival of an old adverbial case-form of the pronoun "that."

In "Who goeth *a* borrowing, goeth *a* sorrowing," and similar constructions, "a" is a survival of an old preposition.

174. How to Parse Articles.—To parse an article one must tell—

(1) What it limits.
(2) Its effect.

EXERCISE 166.

Parse the articles in Exercises 92 and 114.

CHAPTER VII

OF VERBS

A **Verb** is a word used, with or without adjuncts, as the predicate of a sentence (**32**).

The verb is the instrument of assertion. Usually it denotes action; less often, being or state (**34**); sometimes it is without meaning, having assertive power only (**35**). Sometimes it is a single word, sometimes a phrase (**36**).

I. CLASSIFICATION.

A. ACCORDING TO MEANING.

Classified according to meaning, verbs are either **Transitive** or **Intransitive.**

175. Transitive Verbs.—A transitive verb denotes action that passes over from the doer of the action to an object on which it falls: as, "A hunter *shot* a deer" (**40**).

The action expressed by a transitive verb involves two persons or things, either of which may be made the subject of the sentence. In one case we represent the action as passing from the subject; in the other, as passing to it. In other words, we may represent the subject either as performing the action, or as receiving or suffering it. Thus:—

Subject.	Action.	Object.
A man	shot	a deer.

Subject.	Action.	Agent.
A deer	was shot	by a man.

Sometimes, when the subject of the verb names the receiver of the action, the agent or doer of the action is not mentioned; but this does not change the nature of the verb, which remains transitive. Thus:—

Subject.	Action.
A deer	was shot.

For such verbs as "have," "own," "possess," "inherit," etc., see **40.**

To the Teacher.—A transitive verb is sometimes defined as "a verb that requires an object." This definition is satisfactory when the verb is in the active voice; but when the verb is in the passive voice, the definition confuses the pupil, since the passive voice transforms the object into the subject of the sentence.

176. Intransitive Verbs.—An intransitive verb denotes action, being, or state that involves only the subject: as, "The rainbow *comes* and *goes;*" "Enough *is* as good as a feast" (**40**).

Intransitive verbs are of two kinds: (1) *Verbs of Complete Predication*, which can be used by themselves as complete predicates: as, "The rainbow *comes* and *goes*;" (2) *Verbs of Incomplete Predication*, which cannot by themselves be used as complete predicates: as, "Enough *is* as good as a feast" (**43, 44**).

177. Some Verbs Either Transitive or Intransitive.—The distinction between transitive and intransitive verbs is based solely on meaning and use, and if the meaning and use of a verb change, its classification changes too. Hence it happens that some verbs are at one time transitive, at another intransitive: as,

Transitive: She *wore* a wreath of roses
The night that first we met.

Intransitive: Never morning *wore*
To evening, but some heart did break.

A peculiar instance of change from one class to another occurs when a verb usually intransitive becomes transitive through the addition of a preposition used as an inseparable adjunct: as, "They *laughed*;" "They *laughed at* me." That the words "laughed at" in the last sentence are to be taken together as a transitive verb is shown by the fact that if the sentence is thrown into the passive form, "at" remains attached to the verb: as, "I *was laughed at* by them."

Sometimes the preposition is *prefixed* to the verb: as, "Cæsar *over*came the enemy."

EXERCISE 167.

1. *Review Exercises* 24 *and* 25.

2. *Tell whether the verbs in Exercises* 17 *and* 37 *are transitive or intransitive.*

178. Transitive and Intransitive Distinguished by Form.—A few verbs in common use are distin-

guished as transitive or intransitive by their spelling, the transitive being causative forms of the corresponding intransitive verbs. They are:—

Intransitive.	Transitive.
Fall: as, "Divided we *fall*."	Fell ("cause to fall"): as, "Woodmen *fell* trees."
Past, fell: as, "Great Cæsar *fell*."	*Past*, felled: as, "They *felled* all the good trees."
Past Participle,[1] fallen: as, "She has *fallen* asleep."	*Past Participle*[1], felled: as, "This tree was *felled* yesterday."
Lie: as, "*Lie* still."	Lay ("cause to lie"): as, "*Lay* the book down."
Past, lay: as, "Behold, Sisera *lay* dead."	*Past*, laid: as, "He *laid* the book down."
Past Participle, lain: as, "Had he *lain* there long?"	*Past Participle*, laid: as, "He has *laid* the book down."
Rise: as, "*Rise* with the lark."	Raise ("cause to rise"): as, "*Raise* your head."
Past, rose: as, "Then up he *rose*."	*Past*, raised: as, "He *raised* his head."
Past Participle, risen: as, "The lark has *risen*."	*Past Participle*, raised: as, "He has *raised* his head."
Sit: as, "Let us *sit* down."	Set ("cause to sit"): as, "*Set* the lamp on the table."
Past, sat: as, "We *sat* on the piazza."	*Past*, set: as, "She *set* the lamp on the table."
Past Participle, sat: as, "He has *sat* there all day."	*Past Participle*, set: as, "She has *set* the lamp on the table."

EXERCISE 168.

Insert the proper word in each blank in the following sentences:—

1. *Lie, lay, lying, laying, lain, laid.*

1. Let him —— there.
2. It has never —— smooth.

[1] English verbs have two simple participles: the *Present Participle*, ending in "-ing," and the *Past Participle*, used in verb-phrases after forms of "be" and "have."

3. I found it —— on the floor.
4. Now I —— me down to sleep.
5. Ireland ——s west of England.
6. Slowly and sadly we —— him down.
7. You had better —— down for a while.
8. Hush, my dear, —— still and slumber.
9. During the storm the ship —— at anchor.
10. He told me to —— down, and I —— down.
11. The carpet does not —— smooth on the floor.
12. I was so weary that I —— down in my clothes.
13. He told me to —— it down, and I —— it down.
14. After he had —— down he remembered that he had left his pocketbook ——ing by the open window.

II. *Rise, rose, risen, raise, raised.*

1. —— up, you lazy fellow.
2. The price of corn has ——.
3. Let them —— up and help you.
4. She cannot get her bread to ——.
5. Cain —— up against Abel, his brother.
6. Many are they that —— up against me.
7. Abraham —— up early in the morning.
8. He —— himself up before I could reach him.
9. "—— up," said I, "and get you over the brook."

III. *Sit, sat, set.*

1. Where do you ——?
2. Have you —— there long?
3. —— down and talk a while.
4. Let us —— a good example.
5. She had to —— up all night.
6. The calamity —— heavy on us.
7. Let us —— here and listen to the music.
8. Yesterday we —— round the fire telling stories.
9. He —— the basket on a rock, while he went to the spring.

B. ACCORDING TO FORM.

To the Teacher.—The classification of verbs according to form necessarily presupposes an elementary knowledge of the past tense and the past participle. If the pupils are not already acquainted with these terms, Sections 189, 190, and 217 may be studied at this point; or the classification of verbs as strong and weak may be postponed.

Classified according to form, verbs are either **Strong** or **Weak.**

179. Strong Verbs.—Examine the forms of the verb "give" in the following sentences:—

Present.	**Past.**	**Past Participle.**
They *give* liberally.	They *gave* liberally.	They have *given* liberally.

You observe that the past is formed from the present by changing the vowel "i" to "a," and the past participle has the suffix "-en."

Definition.—A verb that forms its past tense[1] by an internal vowel change, without any suffix, is called a **Strong Verb.**

All strong verbs originally had the ending "-n" or "-en" in the past participle; but this ending has been lost in many verbs, as "fight," "fought[en];" therefore no mention of it is made in the definition. An added "-n" or "-en" in the past participle is, however, always a sign of a strong verb.

Strong verbs are among the oldest verbs in our language; therefore their mode of forming the past tense is sometimes called the **Old Conjugation.**

180. Weak Verbs.—Examine the forms of the verbs "obey," "hope," and "mean" in the following sentences:—

[1] See Section **189.**

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
I *obey* you.	I *obeyed* you.	I have *obeyed* you.
We *hope* for the best.	We *hoped* for the best.	We have *hoped* for the best.
They *mean* well.	They *meant* well.	They have *meant* well.

You observe that both the past tense and the past participle are formed by adding "-ed," "-d," or "-t."

Definition.—A verb that forms its past tense by adding "-ed," "-d," or "-t," is called a **Weak Verb.**

The past participle of a weak verb is always like the past tense.

Many weak verbs undergo an internal vowel change, like strong verbs; but they differ from strong verbs in having an added "-d" or "-t" in the past tense: as, tell, tol*d*; teach, tau*ght*; buy, bou*ght*.

In such strong verbs as "find," "found," "fight," "fought," the "-d" or "-t" of the past tense is not a suffix, but belongs to the present form also.

Some weak verbs change "d" of the present to "t" in the past: as, build, buil*t*; send, sen*t*; spend, spen*t*.

In general, the test of a weak verb is the presence in the past tense of a "d" or a "t" that is not in the present.

The following verbs, in which the past tense is like the present, or merely shortens the vowel sound, have lost their suffix and are known to be weak only from a study of Old English: bet, bleed, breed, cast, cost, cut, feed, hit, hurt, lead, let, meet, put, read, rid, set, shed, shoot, shut, slit, speed, spit, split, spread, thrust, wet.

Most weak verbs are of later origin than strong verbs. Hence this mode of forming the past tense is sometimes called the **New Conjugation.**

181. Mixed Verbs.—Some strong verbs have adopted the method of the new conjugation while retaining also that of the old: as, crow, *crew* or

crowed; dig, *dug* or *digged;* hang, *hung* or *hanged;* thrive, *throve* or *thrived.*

A few verbs form their past tense according to one conjugation, and their past participle according to another: as, hew, *hewed, hewn;* show, *showed, shown;* sow, *sowed, sown;* swell, *swelled, swollen;* wake, *woke, waked.*

182. Principal Parts of a Verb.—The present, the past, and the past participle are commonly called the **Principal Parts** of a verb, because from them we can determine all the other forms or parts.

The principal parts of a verb are the forms used in filling the blanks in the following sentences:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
I —— now.	I —— yesterday.	I have ——.

EXERCISE 169.

Give the principal parts of the following verbs, tell whether the verbs are strong or weak, and give the reason for the classification:—

arise	blow	come	fight	hope	seek
bake	break	cost	find	keep	send
beat	bring	dream	freeze	laugh	set
begin	build	eat	have	lay	sing
bend	buy	fall	hear	lead	sit
beseech	catch	feed	hide	lend	teach
bind	choose	feel	hold	make	tell

To the Teacher.—To require a pupil to learn by heart the principal parts of all the strong and the irregular weak verbs is an unprofitable exercise; therefore no tables of such verbs are given here. A list, however, is inserted for reference in the Appendix; and the forms that are frequently misused are treated in Section **200.**

C. ACCORDING TO USE.

Classified according to use, verbs are either **Notional** or **Auxiliary.**

183. Notional and Auxiliary Verbs Defined.—Compare the uses of the verb "have" in the following sentences:—

I *have* a ball.
I *have* lost my ball.

In the first sentence "have" expresses a distinct idea or notion of its own, namely, the idea of possession.

In the second sentence it has laid aside this meaning and merely helps to express the meaning of another verb, "lost."

Definition.—A verb that expresses a distinct idea or notion of its own is called a **Notional Verb.**

Definition.—A verb that merely helps to express the meaning of another verb is called an **Auxiliary Verb.**

The verb that follows an auxiliary is always an infinitive or a participle, and is sometimes called the **Principal Verb** in the verb-phrase.

To the Teacher.—There is much divergence among grammarians in the treatment of *can, let, may, must, ought, should,* and *would.* These verbs cannot stand alone as predicates, but are always followed by the infinitive of another verb; therefore they are all often classed as auxiliaries. On the other hand, *can, must,* and *ought* always have meanings of their own; therefore many object to calling them auxiliaries. According to the latter view, which is adopted in this book, *let, may, should,* and *would* are sometimes notional, sometimes auxiliary (**219-224**).

EXERCISE 170.

Tell whether the italicized verbs are notional or auxiliary:—

1. She *does* her work well. 2. She *does* not see me. 3. *Do* you know where my book is? 4. *Have* you a sled? 5. *Have* you read "Ben-Hur?" 6. I *am* reading it now. 7. It *is* an interesting story. 8. *May* I leave the room? 9. I hope you *may* succeed. 10. You *may* come to see me whenever you can find time. 11. She was afraid we *might* lose the way. 12. You *should* be punctual. 13. If it *should* rain, we *will* not go. 14. Annie *would* not come. 15. *Can* you speak French? 16. Yes, and I *can* speak German too. 17. I *must* go now. 18. Everyone *ought* to tell the truth always.

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184. Verbal Inflections.—Verbs undergo many modifications in form, which add to their root meanings certain ideas of time, completion, uncertainty, number, person, etc. These accessory ideas are attached partly by inflections and partly by auxiliaries.

II. NUMBER AND PERSON.

185. Inflection for Number and Person.—In some languages the form of the verb changes with the number and person of the subject, and the verb is said to *agree* with its subject in number and person. In Old English such number and person forms were numerous; and in the case of the verb "be" we still say: "I *am;*" "Thou *art;*" "He *is;*" "We *are;*" "I *was;*" "You *were,*" etc. Other verbs in modern English have lost all their inflections for number and person, except in the second and third persons of the singular number, as follows:—

First Person: I make.
Second Person: Thou make*st*.
Third Person: He make*s* (make*th*).

The termination "-st" (subject "thou") is used only in Biblical and poetical language (**132.**)

The termination "-th" or "-eth," which was once used instead of "-s," survives only in Biblical language and in poetry: as, "He that *maketh* haste to be rich shall not be innocent;" "He *prayeth* well who *loveth* well."

Therefore, except in the verb "be," the only inflection for number and person in common use is "-s" in the third person singular.

186. Construction of Number Forms.—Examine the verbs and their subjects in the following sentences:—

A *sense* of duty *pursues* us ever. (Singular subject; singular verb.)

Troubles never *come* singly. (Plural subject; plural verb.)

Half of them *are* gone. (Subject singular in form but plural in sense; plural verb.)

"*Gulliver's Travels*" *was* written by Swift. (Subject plural in form but singular in sense; singular verb.)

Tom and his *sister were* there. (Two singular subjects together forming a plural; plural verb.)

Bread and butter is good enough for me. (Two singular subjects taken together as one thing; singular verb.)

Neither *Fred* nor his *sister was* there. (Two singular subjects considered separately; singular verb.)

You observe that, in general, a singular form of the verb is used when the subject is singular or regarded as singular; a plural form, when the subject is plural or regarded as plural.

The principle that a verb agrees with its subject

in number is in most cases followed unconsciously. A few constructions, however, require special notice:—

1. The pronoun "you" takes a plural verb even when the meaning is singular: as, "Tom, you *were* late."

2. A collective noun in the singular number takes a singular verb when the collection is viewed as a whole; a plural verb when the members of the collection are thought of as individuals: as, "The committee *was* discharged." (Here the committee is thought of as a body.) "The committee *were* eating dinner." (The committee ate, not as a body, but as separate individuals.)

3. Sometimes a singular noun takes a plural sense from the presence of two or more distinguishing adjectives: as, "Mental, moral, and physical *education* here *go* hand in hand."

4. When subjects connected by "or" or "nor" are of different numbers, the verb usually agrees with the nearest: as, "One or two *were* there."

CAUTION.—When one or more plural words come between a singular subject and its verb, a writer is in danger of forgetting the real subject and of giving to the verb the number of the nearest substantive. The following sentences are correct: "The formation of paragraphs *is* very important." (Here the subject is "formation.") "Every one of us *has* had this feeling." (Here the subject is "Every one.")

Words joined to a singular subject by "with," "together with," "in addition to," or "as well as," are not on the same grammatical level as the subject, but are parenthetical, and therefore do not affect the number of the verb: as, "Justice, as well as mercy, *allows* it."

EXERCISE 171.

Construct sentences illustrating each of the special cases of agreement mentioned in Section 186.

EXERCISE 172.

Insert in each of the blanks the proper form of the verb "be," and give the reason for your choice:—

1. I know you —— there.
2. One of you —— mistaken.
3. One or two —— ready now.
4. Two years —— a long time.
5. Books —— a common noun.
6. Five years' interest —— due.
7. A hundred yards —— not far.
8. There —— many things to do.
9. Bread and milk —— good diet.
10. The public —— cordially invited.
11. Each of the sisters —— beautiful.
12. Neither of the girls —— very much at ease.
13. A number of the boys —— waiting outside.
14. Manual and physical training —— necessary.
15. Either the master or his servants —— to blame.
16. Two thousand dollars a year —— a good salary.
17. Fluency and eloquence —— two different things.
18. Neither the servants nor their master —— to blame.
19. Neither the painter nor his picture —— very famous.
20. She has one of the prettiest faces that ever —— seen.
21. "Tales of a Traveler" —— published by Irving in 1824.
22. General Custer, with all his men, —— massacred by Indians.

187. "Don't."—"Don't," which is a contraction of "do not," and which is proper enough in its place, should not be misused for "doesn't" when the subject is in the third person singular. The following sentences are correct: "Why *doesn't* she come?" "Why *don't* you speak?"

EXERCISE 173.

Insert the proper contraction (don't, doesn't) in each blank, and give the reason for your choice:—

1. Why —— he write?
2. It —— seem possible.
3. She —— like croquet.
4. I —— know what it is to be afraid.
5. The captain says he —— know what it is to be afraid.

188. Construction of Person Forms. — A practical difficulty in using correctly the personal forms of verbs arises when the subject consists of two or more substantives of different persons connected by *either—or*, or *neither—nor*. Shall we say, for example, "Either he or I *is* mistaken," or "Either he or I *am* mistaken?" If driven to a choice, we usually, but by no means always, let the verb agree with the nearest subject; or, we give the preference to the first person over the second or third. But it is far better to avoid such difficulties (1) by using some verb that has the same form for all persons: as, "Either he or I *must be* mistaken;" or (2) by rearranging the sentence: as, "Either you are mistaken, or I am;" "One of us is mistaken," etc.

Occasionally mistakes in person are made in relative clauses, the speaker forgetting that the verb should have the same person as the antecedent of the relative pronoun (151).

III. TENSE.

189. Tense Defined.—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

I *see* the Brooklyn Bridge.
I *saw* the Brooklyn Bridge.
I *shall see* the Brooklyn Bridge.

Here we have three different forms of the same verb, denoting the same action, but referring it to different times—the present, the past, and the future.

Definitions.—A difference in the form of a verb to denote time is called **Tense** (Old French, "time").

A verb that denotes present action is in the **Present Tense.**

A verb that denotes past action is in the **Past Tense.**

A verb that denotes future action is in the **Future Tense.**

190. Simple Tenses.—The English verb has only two simple tense forms: the **Present Tense,** which is the same as the root-form of the verb: as, "I *write*," "I *hope*;" and the **Past Tense,** which is formed from the present by inflection: as, "I *wrote*," "I *hoped*." To denote future action the present tense was at first employed, as it still is occasionally: as, "We *begin* practice to-morrow."

The methods of forming the past tense are described in **179-180.**

191. Phrasal Tenses.—In course of time the two simple tenses were found insufficient; and to denote

further distinctions of time, verb-phrases were employed, formed by means of auxiliary verbs. By combining the present and past tenses of *will*, *shall*, *have*, *be*, or *do* with infinitives and participles, a system of **Phrasal Tenses** was built up, by which we are able to express the time of the action with great accuracy.

The infinitive used in forming verb-phrases is the root infinitive, without "to" (**93**).

The participles used in forming verb-phrases are the present participle and the past participle.

The present participle ends in "-ing."

The past participle of a weak verb is the same as the past tense and ends in "-ed," "-d," or "-t" (**180**). The past participle of a strong verb changes the vowel of the present tense, and often ends in "-en" or "-n" (**179**).

192. Phrasal Tenses: Future.—To form a **Future Tense** we use "shall" or "will" as an auxiliary, followed by the root infinitive without "to:" as, "I *shall write* to him;" "He *will write* to me."

The distinction between *shall* and *will* as future auxiliaries is given in **199.**

EXERCISE 174.

Construct sentences containing the present, past, and future tenses of "fight" and "stand."

193. Phrasal Tenses: Perfect.—To represent an action as ended or complete at a given time we use the present, past, or future of "have" as an auxiliary, followed by the past participle: as,

"There, I *have written* my exercise;" "Yesterday, when the clock struck nine, I *had written* two pages;" "To-morrow, by dinner time, I *shall have written* all my letters." Since these phrasal tenses denote action as completed or perfect in present, past, or future time, they are called the **Perfect Tenses.**

The **Present Perfect Tense** denotes action completed at the time of speaking. It is formed by putting "have" ("hast," "has") before the past participle.

The **Past Perfect Tense** denotes action completed at some point in past time. It is formed by putting "had" ("hadst") before the past participle.

The **Future Perfect Tense** denotes action that will be completed at some point in future time. It is formed by putting "shall have" or "will have" before the past participle.

Originally "have" in the perfect tense phrases was a notional verb, and the participle described the object, as when we now say, "I *have* my letters *written*;" "I *had* two pages *written*;" "I *shall have* my letters *written*." Moreover, "have" was used only with transitive verbs, intransitive verbs forming their perfect tenses with "be:" as, "Thy sister-in-law *is gone* back unto her people." In course of time the participle was transferred from the object to the auxiliary as part of a verb-phrase, and the use of "have" was extended to intransitive verbs also: as, "The sun *has gone* down."

EXERCISE 175.

Construct sentences containing the perfect tenses of "fight" and "stand."

194. Phrasal Tenses: Progressive. — Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

I *write* my letters carefully.
I *am writing* my letters carefully.

Both of these sentences refer to present time, but with a difference. In the first sentence the simple present "write" does not necessarily mean that the writing is going on at the present moment; it merely asserts a present custom. In order to represent an action as going on or progressing, we usually put a form of "be" before the present participle, as in the second sentence. Since such phrasal tenses denote action as progressing in present, past, or future time, they are called **Progressive Tenses.**

The **Present Progressive Tense** represents an action as going on at the time of speaking. It is formed by putting "am" ("art," "is," "are") before the present participle.

The **Past Progressive Tense** represents an action as going on at some point in past time. It is formed by putting "was" ("wast," "were") before the present participle.

The **Future Progressive Tense** represents an action as going on at some point in future time. It is formed by putting "shall be" or "will be" before the present participle.

Now compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

I *have written* my letters.
I *have been writing* my letters.

In the sentence "I *have written* my letters" the verb "have written" merely represents the action

as completed. If we wish to add to the idea of completion the idea of previous duration or progress, we combine the perfect tenses of "be" with the present participle: as, "I *have been writing* a composition;" "Yesterday evening my hand was cramped, for I *had been writing* all day;" "When the clock strikes ten I *shall have been writing* twenty minutes." Since these phrasal tenses denote action as completed in present, past, or future time, after continuance or progression, they are called respectively the **Present Perfect Progressive Tense,** the **Past Perfect Progressive Tense,** and the **Future Perfect Progressive Tense.**

Logically the present participle in the progressive tenses is an attribute complement, describing the subject; but grammatically it is best to treat it as part of a verb-phrase.

EXERCISE 176.

Construct sentences illustrating each of the six progressive tenses of "fight" and "stand."

195. Phrasal Tenses: Emphatic, Interrogative, and Negative.—In the sentences "I *write* my letters carefully" and "I *wrote* to her yesterday" "write" and "wrote" merely assert action. If we wish to make the same assertions emphatically, in the face of doubt or denial, we substitute for the simple tenses certain phrasal tenses formed by putting the present or the past of "do" before the root infinitive of the principal verb: as, "I *do write* my letters carefully;" "I *did write* to her yesterday."

These phrasal tenses are appropriately called the **Present Emphatic Tense** and the **Past Emphatic Tense.** Other tenses are made emphatic by laying emphasis on the auxiliary that is already present: as, "I *have* written my letters."

In **Negative** and **Interrogative** sentences the same phrasal tenses formed with "do" and "did" are substituted for the simple present and past tenses, without the effect of emphasis: as, "*Do* you *write* to her often?" "*Did* you *write* to her to-day?" "You *do* not *write* well;" "You *did* not *write* carefully."

The emphatic meaning of the auxiliary "do" is modern. Formerly the phrasal tenses formed with "do" and "did" were equivalent to the simple present and past, and did not imply emphasis.

The use of the auxiliary "do" in negative sentences is in accordance with the tendency of modern English to attach the word "not" to auxiliaries rather than to principal verbs.

The use of the auxiliary "do" in interrogative sentences enables us to follow the prevailing method of turning an assertion into a question, which is, to put the subject between an auxiliary and the principal verb: as, "*Are* you *coming?*" "*Did* you *hear?*"

EXERCISE 177.

Construct sentences illustrating the present and past emphatic, negative, and interrogative tense forms—six kinds in all.

196. Summary of Tense Forms.—Gathering together the different tense forms described in the preceding sections, we may tabulate the tenses of the English verb as follows:—

	Ordinary.	Emphatic, etc.	Progressive.
Pres.	write	do write	am writing
Past	wrote	did write	was writing
Fut.	will write		will be writing
Pres. Perf.	have written		have been writing
Past Perf.	had written		had been writing
Fut. Perf.	will have written		will have been writing

NOTE.—Besides these regular tenses, we sometimes employ a sort of future tense phrase formed by combining the progressive tenses of "go" with the root infinitive of the principal verb: as, "I *am going to write* a composition;" "I *have been going to write* to him for a week." It is best to resolve such phrases into their parts, rather than to classify them as parts of the tense system. The same is true of such phrases as "I *used to write*" and "I *am about to write*."

EXERCISE 178.

Give the tense of each verb in Exercises 23 *and* 38.

To the Teacher.—A complete discussion of the uses of English tenses is impossible here, nor would it be desirable; for the tenses and their uses are, for the most part, learned unconsciously from conversation and reading. The following discussion is limited to the few instances in which experience shows that special comment is helpful.

197. Uses of the Simple Present.—The simple present tense has the following uses:—

1. To denote action belonging to a period of time that includes the present: as, "He *goes* to town every Saturday;" "Two and two *make* four."

2. As an occasional substitute for the present progressive, to denote action going on at the present moment: as, "I *see* a robin;" "I *hear* the bell."

3. As an occasional substitute for the future: as, "We *sail* for Europe next Saturday."

4. In vivid narrative as a substitute for the past: as, "At this news Cæsar *hurries* to Gaul." This is called the *Historical Present*.

198. Uses of the Present Perfect.—The present perfect tense, which ordinarily represents something as *completed* at the time of speaking, is also used, instead of a past tense, to represent a past action (1) as continuing to the present, at least in its consequences, or (2) as belonging to a period of time not yet ended: as,

(1) "I *have lost* my book" (so that now I am without it).
(1) "We *have lived* here five years" (we live here now).
(2) "I *have seen* him three times *to-day*."
(2) "We *have had* a great deal of rain *this year*."

The use of a past tense in any of these sentences would cut away the action from all connection with present time: as,

"I *lost* my book" (it may have since been found).
"We *lived* here five years" (we have moved away).
"I *saw* him three times *yesterday*."
"We *had* a great deal of rain *last year*."

EXERCISE 179.

Distinguish between:—

He studies (is studying) now.
I came (have come) to see you.
I read (am reading) Thackeray.
She always goes (is going) to church.
He lived (has lived) here a good many years.
We expected (were expecting) you yesterday.

You did not tie (have not tied) it fast enough.

I have written (have been writing) letters all day.

What have you done (have you been doing) to-day?

I have received (have been receiving) letters from him.

I shall travel (shall be traveling) in Europe next summer.

I wrote (had written, was writing) my letter when he came.

EXERCISE 180.

Tell which of the italicized forms is preferable, and give the reason for your answer:—

1. I *was* (*have been*) here yesterday.

2. Shakespeare *says* (*said*) that love is blind.

3. I *knew* (*have known*) him since he was a child.

4. How far did you say it *is* (*was*) from here to Chicago?

5. The earth is a ball that always *turns* (*is turning*) round.

6. When we *saw* (*had seen*) everything in Geneva we went on to Paris.

7. As soon as the ships were within range the Admiral *opens* (*opened*) fire.

8. By this time to-morrow I *shall pass* (*shall have passed*) my examinations.

9. I *shall finish* (*shall have finished*) my letter by the time you come back.

10. Mr. Williams regrets that a previous engagement *prevents* (*will prevent*) him from accepting Miss Smith's kind invitation for Monday evening.

199. Shall or Will.—There is an important distinction between the auxiliaries used in forming the future tenses. At first "shall" and "will" were notional verbs, "shall" meaning "to be obliged," and "will" meaning "to wish." At present they often retain some trace of their original meanings,

"will" implying a reference to the will of the subject, and "shall" implying obligation or compulsion: as, "I *will* never forsake you;" "He *shall* be brought to justice." Just as often, however, "shall" and "will" are mere auxiliaries, with no trace of their original meaning: as, "The bell *will* soon ring, and I *shall* be late."

Modern usage may be exhibited as follows:—

Simple Future.	Future, with added idea of determination.
I (we) shall	I (we) will
You will [1]	You shall [2]
He (they) will	He (they) shall [2]

In *clauses introduced by the conjunction "that,"* expressed or understood, the same auxiliary is used that would be used if the clause were an independent sentence: as, "I fear that we *shall* miss the train." (Independent: "We *shall* miss the train.")

Such clauses are common after *say, declare, think, believe, hope, fear,* and words of similar meaning.

In *all other subordinate clauses* "shall" in all persons denotes simple futurity; "will" in all persons implies an exercise of will: as, "When He *shall* appear (simple futurity) we shall be like Him;" "If you *will* come (i. e., are willing to come), we will give you a good time."

In *questions* "shall" is the proper auxiliary in the first person; in the second and third persons the same auxiliary is used that is expected in the

[1] Sometimes used in a courteous command to a subordinate officer.

[2] Also used in speaking of what is destined to take place.

answer: as, "*Shall* we go to-morrow?" "*Will* you go?" (*Answer:* "I *will* go.") "*Shall* you be glad when to-morrow comes?" (*Answer:* "I *shall* be glad.")

"Should" and "would" are the past tenses of "shall" and "will," and in general follow the same rules. See, however, **221** and **222.**

EXERCISE 181.

Distinguish between:—

1. He will (shall) not go.
2. Shall (will) you be there?
3. I shall (will) not hear you.
4. She will (shall) not see me.
5. He thought I would (should) go.
6. We will (shall) see you to-morrow.
7. What shall (will) the admission be?
8. If he would (should) help, we could do it.
9. You will (shall) know my answer to-morrow.
10. If she disobeyed, she would (should) be punished.
11. Do you think I would (should) go under the circumstances?

EXERCISE 182.

Insert the proper auxiliary ("shall," "will") in each blank in the following sentences:—

1. —— we go to-morrow?
2. We —— have rain soon.
3. I —— be glad to see you.
4. —— you be able to come?
5. —— we ask her to come too?
6. I —— be twelve in December.

7. How —— I send the package?
8. If I do not hurry, I —— be late.
9. I hope you —— be able to come.
10. —— I bring a chair for the lady?
11. He thinks we —— soon have rain.
12. I am afraid we —— miss the train.
13. She says she —— be glad to see us.
14. We —— never forget this kindness.
15. —— we have time to get our tickets?
16. We —— be pleased to have you call.
17. I hope we —— not be so late as that.
18. He fears we —— have to ask her too.
19. I fear that I —— not be able to come.
20. He thinks he —— not be able to come.
21. John thinks he —— be sick to-morrow.
22. He asks how he —— send the package.
23. John thinks James —— be sick to-morrow.
24. She wonders whether we —— go to-morrow.
25. It is probable that I —— be away at that time.
26. —— you meet me at the corner in five minutes?
27. They declare they never —— forget this kindness.
28. —— we have another chance at this examination?

EXERCISE 183.

Insert the proper auxiliary ("would," "should") in each blank in the following sentences:—

1. He thought I —— be hurt.
2. We —— be sorry to be late.
3. He thought he —— be hurt.
4. He thought she —— be hurt.
5. He thought you —— be hurt.
6. I —— like to see a yacht race.

7. What —— we do without cooks?

8. At first I didn't think I —— like Latin.

9. If I tried to walk a tight-rope, I —— fall.

10. I asked him whether he —— come again.

11. I —— think they —— have known better.

12. I —— feel glad if she —— tell me wherein I have offended her.

200. Misused Forms.—The past tense and the past participle of the verbs in the following list are often confounded or incorrectly formed:—

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
begin	began	begun
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
burst	burst	burst
come	came	come
dive	dived	dived
do	did	done
drive	drove	driven
eat	ate	eaten
fly	flew	flown
flow	flowed	flowed
freeze	froze	frozen
forget	forgot	forgotten
get	got	got
go	went	gone
lay ("to cause to lie")	laid	laid
lie ("to recline")	lay	lain
prove	proved	proved
ride	rode	ridden
rise	rose	risen
raise ("to cause to rise")	raised	raised
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen
set ("to put;" of the sun, moon, etc., "to sink")	set	set

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
sit	sat	sat
shake	shook	shaken
show	showed	shown
speak	spoke	spoken
slay	slew	slain
steal	stole	stolen
take	took	taken
throw	threw	thrown
wake	woke	waked
write	wrote	written

In using the verbs *drink, ring, shrink, sing, sink, spring, swim,* it is better to confine the forms in "a" to the past tense, and the forms in "u" to the past participle: as, "The bell *rang* five minutes ago;" "Yes, the bell has *rung*."

EXERCISE 184.

Change the italicized verbs in these sentences to the past tense:—

1. I *do* it myself.
2. Tom *swims* very well.
3. Harry *sees* me coming.
4. The sun *wakes* me early.
5. The wind *blows* furiously.
6. The guests *begin* to go home.
7. They *sit* in the third pew from the front.
8. The Susquehanna River *overflows* its banks.
9. Helen *comes* in and *lays* her coat on a chair.
10. Both short-stop and pitcher *run* for the ball.
11. The wild goose *flies* southward in the autumn.
12. They *eat* their supper as if they were half starved.
13. The Negro women *set* their baskets on their heads.
14. George *dives* better than any other boy in the crowd.
15. The catcher often *throws* the ball to the second base.

16. The savages who *live* on this island *slay* their captives.

17. The workmen *lay* the rails for the track with great care.

18. Obedient to the doctor's directions, she *lies* down an hour every day.

EXERCISE 185.

Change the italicized verbs in these sentences to the perfect tense :—

1. He *writes* home.
2. I *forget* his name.
3. The sleeper *awakes.*
4. He *stole* my watch.
5. Ethel *broke* her arm.
6. They *go* by steamer.
7. Some one *takes* my hat.
8. I *see* the President often.
9. He *gets* along fairly well.
10. They *slay* their prisoners.
11. The enemy *come* in force.
12. The boys *dive* three times.
13. I *set* the lamp on the table.
14. A mist *rises* before my eyes.
15. The water in my pitcher *froze.*
16. He *speaks* his declamation well.
17. The boys *are eating* their supper.
18. He *throws* cold water on my plan.
19. The Ohio River *overflows* its banks.
20. He *sits* by the hour talking politics.
21. Rab *shakes* the little dog by the neck.
22. This *proves* the truth of my assertion.
23. The wind *blows* my papers off the table.
24. A robin *flies* to the vines by my window.
25. John *is driving* the cows out of the corn.

26. I *lie* on the couch twenty minutes to rest.
27. This fact clearly *shows* the prisoner's guilt.
28. He *wakes* me every night by his restlessness.
29. He *rides* alone from Litchfield to Waterbury.
30. They *lay* burdens on me greater than I can bear.

IV. MODE.[1]

201. Mode Defined.—Compare the verbs in the following sentences:—

He *is* here.
Would he *were* here.
Be here at daylight.

In these sentences we have three different forms of the verb "be," indicating different ways in which the thought is presented to the mind. "Is" shows that it is presented as a *fact;* "were" shows that it is presented as a *mere thought* (he is *not* here); "be" shows that it is presented as a *command.*

Definition.—A difference in the form of a verb to show how the thought is presented to the mind is called **Mode.**

Definition.—The form of a verb used to present a thought as a fact is called the **Indicative Mode.**

Definition.—The form of a verb used to present a thought as a mere thought, uncertain or contrary to fact, is called the **Subjunctive Mode.**

Definition.—The form of a verb used to present a thought as a command or entreaty is called the **Imperative Mode.**

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[1] *To the Teacher.*—In recognizing only three modes the author has followed the best modern philologists. The forms often called "potential" fall easily within either the indicative or the subjunctive.

202. The Indicative Mode.—The indicative mode is the most common, being used in expressing a fact, or what is assumed to be a fact, and in asking questions of fact.

Caution.—The indicative is often used in sentences that express what is uncertain or contrary to fact; but in such cases the uncertainty or untruth is expressed by *some other word:* as, "*Perhaps* it will rain;" "He is *not* here." The subjunctive, on the other hand, often expresses uncertainty or untruth by *its own form* without the help of other words: as, "*Were* he here, he would go with us."

203. The Subjunctive Mode: Form.—In form the subjunctive differs from the indicative in the following ways:—

1. In the single case of the verb "be" the subjunctive has distinct forms for the present and past tenses, namely:—

Present.		Past.	
Indicative.	Subjunctive.	Indicative.	Subjunctive.
I *am*	I *be*	I *was*	I *were*
Thou *art*	Thou *be*	Thou *wast*	Thou *wert*
He *is*	He *be*	He *was*	He *were*
We *are*	We *be*	We *were*	We *were*
You *are*	You *be*	You *were*	You *were*
They *are*	They *be*	They *were*	They *were*

EXAMPLES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF "BE."—"Judge not, that ye *be* not judged;" "Hallowed *be* Thy name;" "If I *were* you, I would not say that;" "Would that Alice *were* here!"

2. In other verbs the subjunctive has the same form as the indicative, except that in the second and third persons singular there are no personal endings: as,

Present.		Past.	
Indicative.	Subjunctive.	Indicative.	Subjunctive.
I write	I write	I wrote	I wrote
Thou writest	Thou write	Thou wrotest	Thou wrote
He writes	He write	He wrote	He wrote

EXAMPLES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF OTHER VERBS THAN "BE."—"It is better he *die*;" "Govern well thy appetite, lest sin *surprise* thee;" "Long *live* the King!" "If thy hand *offend* thee, cut it off."

3. Sometimes the subjunctive is phrasal, being formed by means of the auxiliaries "may" (past, "might"), "had," "would," and "should."

EXAMPLES OF THE PHRASAL SUBJUNCTIVE.—"Bring me a light, that I *may see* what this is;" "I hope you *may succeed*;" "*May* you *live* long and happily;" "We were afraid we *might miss* the train;" "It is better he *should die*;" "Let us start early, lest we *should be* late;" "It *would be* better if we *should start* now;" "If my sister *had seen* that mouse, she *would have screamed*."

Caution.—It does not follow that the verbs "may," "would," "should," and "had" are always subjunctive. In the following sentences, for example, they make simple statements of fact, and are therefore indicative: "You *may* (i. e., are permitted to) go now;" "You *should* (i. e., ought to) start earlier;" "Annie *would* not (i. e., was unwilling to) sing." **(219–223.)**

204. The Subjunctive Mode: Uses.—The subjunctive mode expresses action, being, or state, not as a fact, but as something merely conceived of in the mind. It is the thought-mode as distinguished from the fact-mode, and indicates some uncertainty or disbelief in the speaker's mind. It is most frequently used to express—

1. *A wish:* as, "God forbid!" "O, that I *were* a man."

2. *A purpose:* as, "Judge not, that ye *be* not *judged;*" "Bring me a light, that I *may see* what this is."

3. *A possibility:* as, "We were afraid we *might miss* the train;" "Strike ere it *be* too late."

4. *A supposition regarded as untrue or unlikely:* as, "If I *were* you, I would go."

5. *A conclusion regarded as untrue or unlikely:* as, "If I were you, I *would go;*" "If my sister had seen that mouse, she *would have screamed.*"

The subjunctive is much less used than it was formerly; but it is still common in the writings of authors who are artistic and exact in expression.[1]

205. The Subjunctive Mode: Tenses.—The use of the tenses of the subjunctive is peculiar, the time referred to not always corresponding to the name of the tense. Frequently the present subjunctive refers to future time, and the past subjunctive to present time: as, "Strike ere it *be* too late;" "O, that I *were* a man." (**207.**)

206. The Imperative Mode.—The imperative mode expresses commands, entreaties, or advice addressed to the person spoken to. It is used only in the second person; and it has the same form for both singular and plural, namely, the root-form of

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[1] "Some people seem to think that the subjunctive mood is as good as lost, that it is doomed, and that its retention is hopeless. If its function were generally appreciated, it might even now be saved. . . . If we lose the subjunctive verb, it will certainly be a grievous impoverishment to our literary language, were it only for its value in giving variation to diction—and I make bold to assert that the writer who helps to keep it up deserves public gratitude."—*John Earle:* "English Prose, Its Elements, History, and Usage," p. 172.

the verb: as, "*Be* just, and *fear* not;" "*Have* mercy on us." It is usually distinguished from the present indicative by the omission of the subject.

Caution.—Commands or entreaties addressed to the person spoken to must not be confounded with wishes concerning a person or thing spoken of: as, "Long live the Queen!" "Thy kingdom come." In these sentences the verbs are in the subjunctive **(204)**.

For "let" as an imperative auxiliary see **219.**

EXERCISE 186.

Tell the mode of each verb in the following sentences, and give the reason for your opinion:—

1. God forbid.
2. Love me, love my dog.
3. I could cry my eyes out.
4. Thy money perish with thee.
5. The law is good if a man use it lawfully.
6. He serves his party best who serves the country best.
7. Gather up the fragments that remain, that nothing be lost.
8. Take heed that ye do not your alms before men, to be seen of them.
9. If it be possible, as much as lieth in you, live peaceably with all men.
10. Boast not thyself of to-morrow; for thou knowest not what a day may bring forth.
11. Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow; they toil not, neither do they spin.
12. God sifted a whole nation that he might send choice grain over into this wilderness.
13. It were better for him that a millstone were hanged about his neck, and he cast into the sea.

14. If I were an American, as I am an Englishman, while a foreign troop was landed in my country I never would lay down my arms,—never! never! never!

15. Come what come may,
Time and the hour runs through the roughest day.

16. Shall I, wasting in despair,
Die because a woman's fair?
Or make pale my cheeks with care,
'Cause another's rosy are?
Be she fairer than the day,
Or the flowery meads in May,
If she be not so to me,
What care I how fair she be?

207. Modes in Conditional Sentences.—A sentence containing a supposition or condition is called a **Conditional Sentence.** Now, a supposition may refer to present, past, or future time. If it refers to present or past time, it may be viewed by the speaker as true, untrue, or as a mere supposition with nothing implied as to its truth; if it refers to the future, it may be viewed as either likely or unlikely. A supposition which is assumed to be true, or which is made without any hint of its incorrectness, is expressed by the indicative: as, "If it *is* raining, we cannot go." A supposition which is viewed by the speaker as untrue or unlikely is properly expressed by the subjunctive. When the character of the supposition makes the conclusion untrue or unlikely, the conclusion also is expressed by the subjunctive: as, "If I *were* you, I *would* not *go*.

In clauses that express conditions, the **Present Subjunctive** refers to either *present* or *future time*, and suggests *doubt*.

The **Past Subjunctive** refers to *present time* and implies that the supposition *is not a fact*.

The **Past Perfect Subjunctive** refers to *past time*, and implies that the supposition *was not a fact*.

NOTE 1. When "if" is equivalent to "whenever," the condition is called "general," to distinguish it from "particular" conditions, which refer to some particular act at some particular time. General conditions properly take the indicative: as, "If (i. e., whenever) it *rains*, I stay at home."

NOTE 2. Sometimes there is no "if," and then the verb or a part of the verb precedes the subject: as, "*Were* it raining, I should be sorry;" "*Had* it *been raining*, I should have been sorry."

NOTE 3. Clauses introduced by "though," "although," and "unless" take the same forms as clauses introduced by "if."

EXERCISE 187.

Tell the difference in meaning between the sentences in each of the following groups, and tell the mode of each verb:—

1. (*a*) If she goes, I will go. (*b*) If she should go, I would go. (*c*) If she were going, I would go. (*d*) If she had gone, I would go. (*e*) If she had gone, I would have gone.

2. (*a*) If he follows my advice, he will succeed. (*b*) If he followed my advice, he would succeed. (*c*) Had he followed my advice, he would have succeeded. (*d*) If he should follow my advice, he would succeed.

3. (*a*) If she speaks French, she does not need an interpreter. (*b*) If she speaks French, she will not need an interpreter. (*c*) If she spoke French, she would not need an interpreter.

4. (*a*) If he is faithful, he will be promoted. (*b*) If he should be faithful, he would be promoted. (*c*) If he were faithful, he would be promoted. (*d*) If he had been faithful, he would have been promoted.

5. (*a*) O, that he may be truthful! (*b*) O, that he were truthful! (*c*) O, that he had been truthful!

6. (*a*) Even though it is raining, I will go. (*b*) Even though it rain, I will go. (*c*) Even though it should rain, I would go. (*d*) Even though it rained, I went. (*e*) Even though it rains, I will go. (*f*) Even though it rained, I would go. (*g*) Even though it has rained, I will go. (*h*) Even though it had rained, I would go. (*i*) Even though it had rained, I would have gone.

EXERCISE 188.

Tell which of the italicized forms is preferable, and give the reason:—

1. I wish I *was* (*were*) a man.

2. I wish she *was* (*were*) at home.

3. If I *was* (*were*) you, I would stay at home.

4. The train could go faster if it *was* (*were*) necessary.

5. Though a liar *speaks* (*speak*) the truth, he will not be believed.

6. Though gold *is* (*be*) more precious than iron, it is not so useful.

7. If he *was* (*were, should be*) found out, he would lose his place.

V. VOICE.

208. Voice Defined.—We have already seen (**42, 175**) that a transitive verb may represent the subject as doing the action expressed by the verb or as receiving it: as, "*John frightened* Helen;" "*Helen was frightened* by John."

Definition.—A difference in the form of a verb to show whether the subject acts or is acted upon is called **Voice.**

Definition.—The form of a verb that represents

the subject as doing an action is called the **Active Voice.**

Definition.—The form of a verb that represents the subject as receiving an action is called the **Passive Voice.**

209. Form of the Passive Voice.—Compare the following sentences:—

(*Active*) Grocers *sell* butter.
(*Passive*) Butter *is sold* by grocers.

(*Active*) Congress *made* Dewey an admiral.
(*Passive*) Dewey *was made* an admiral by Congress.

(*Active*) The manager *will give* you a ticket.
(*Passive*) A ticket *will be given* you by the manager; or (occasionally), You *will be given* a ticket by the manager.[1]

You observe that the passive voice of a verb is formed by putting a form of the verb "be" before the past participle.

You observe, also, that when a sentence is changed from the active to the passive form, the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb.

The subject of the active verb becomes an agent after the passive verb—a relation expressed by the preposition "by."

An objective complement becomes an attribute complement (49).

An indirect object usually remains an indirect object. Sometimes, however, it is made the subject of the passive verb, the direct object then becoming a "retained object" (58).[1]

[1] Though this illogical construction is supported by excellent authority, it is condemned by some grammarians.

EXERCISE 189.

1. *Review Exercises* 27, 34, *and* 48.

2. *Change the following sentences into the passive form:—*

1. Sculptors make statues. 2. The Puritans founded Harvard College. 3. Many New England farmers have abandoned their farms. 4. Manners reveal character. 5. A sense of duty pursues us ever. 6. Gentle deeds make known a gentle mind. 7. Little strokes fell great oaks. 8. Public amusements keep people from vice. 9. No one ever achieved anything great without enthusiasm. 10. Garrick's death eclipsed the gayety of nations, and impoverished the public stock of harmless pleasure. 11. God had sifted three kingdoms to find the wheat for this planting.[1] 12. Before man made us citizens great Nature made us men. 13. A crumb of bread thrown in jest made Prescott, the historian, blind for life. 14. They saw the storm approaching. 15. They found her lying in the snow frozen to death. 16. All believed him to be an honest man. 17. She told me to stand up. 18. We dropped the subject, and have not referred to it since. 19. The sly agent imposed upon us both. 20. The wounded man's wife took care of him.

3. *Change the following sentences into the active form:—*

1. The corn has been badly damaged by the late storm. 2. Forty thousand persons were killed in 1883 by the eruption of the volcano of Krakatoa. 3. It will be said by the newspapers that congratulations are showered on you by your friends. 4. In 1453 Constantinople was captured by the Turks and made the capital of their empire.

210. Caution.—Sometimes the past participle of a verb is used as an attribute complement, to denote the condition of the subject: as, "Our revels now are *ended;*" "He is *gone*." Such constructions must

[1] *This planting*, the Colony of Plymouth.

not be confounded with the passive voice, which denotes action received by the subject.

Beware, also, of confounding the passive voice, which consists of "be" and a *past* participle, with progressive tenses, which consist of "be" and a *present* participle: as, (Passive) "Birds *are shot* for their feathers;" (Progressive) "The birds *are singing*."

EXERCISE 190.

1. *Review Exercise* 22.

2. *Tell whether the italicized words in the following sentences are attribute complements or parts of passive verb-phrases:—*

1. The melancholy days are *come*. 2. Our little life is *rounded* with a sleep. 3. The school bell is *rung* at nine o'clock. 4. The quality of mercy is not *strained*. 5. It is *enthroned* in the hearts of kings. 6. The apples were *picked* yesterday. 7. The spectacle was well *adapted* to excite wonder. 8. Man is *born* unto trouble, as the sparks fly upward. 9. The lines are *fallen* unto me in pleasant places. 10. Rome was not *built* in a day. 11. I am not *prepared* to recite this morning. 12. A fool and his money are soon *parted*.

3. *Tell the voice of each verb in the following sentences:—*

1. Annie is studying her lesson. 2. Tom has been mending his kite. 3. The lion and the unicorn were fighting for the crown. 4. The lawn is being watered by the gardener. 5. The stars are shining brightly. 6. The grammar class is taught by Miss H. 7 By whom was this ink spilled? 8. Is it raining?

VI. INFINITIVES.

An **Infinitive** is a form of the verb that partakes of the nature of both verb and noun (93).

211. Nature of Infinitives.—Infinitives are intermediate between verbs on the one hand and nouns on the other. They express action, being, or state, and take the same adjuncts or modifiers as the verbs from which they are formed; but they have the constructions of nouns. They differ from verbs in not being instruments of assertion; they differ from nouns in having the adjuncts of verbs. An infinitive is "a verb in a substantival aspect."

The name "infinitive" means "unlimited," and refers to the fact that the action, being, or state expressed by an infinitive is usually not limited to a particular subject or time: as, "*To climb* steep hills requires strength and endurance."

The indicative, subjunctive, and imperative forms of the verb, which take the person and number of their subject, are often called **Finite** ("limited") verbs.

212. Form of Infinitives.—With regard to form, infinitives are of two principal kinds:—

1. The **Root-Infinitive,** which always has the same form as the root or simple form of the verb: as, "Better *wear* out than *rust* out;" "You need not *wait*." It is often preceded by "to:" as, "It is better *to wear* out than *to rust* out;" "I prefer *to wait*."

2. The **Infinitive in -ing,** formed from the root of the verb by adding "-ing:" as, "She understands *boiling* an egg better than anybody else."

Historically the infinitive termination "-ing" seems to be a form of the ancient infinitive termination "-an" (later "-en"). In the case of the root-infinitive, "-an" ("-en") has been dropped; in the infinitive in "-ing," "-an" ("-en") has been changed to "-ing."

213. "To" before the Root-Infinitive.—Originally "to" before the root-infinitive denoted purpose, and always had the force of a preposition, as it still has in many expressions: as, "Boats *to* let" (i. e., "*for* letting"); "He came *to* see us" (i. e., "*for* seeing"); "We grieve *to* hear it" (i. e., "*at* hearing"); "He is ashamed *to* beg" (i. e., "*of* begging"). In these sentences "to let," "to see," "to hear," and "to beg" are really *adjective or adverbial phrases,* in which root-infinitives are used as objects of the preposition "to."

In many other modern expressions "to" before the root-infinitive has no other value than to mark the following word as an infinitive: as, "*To* bear our fate is *to* conquer it." Here "to" resembles an inflection, and is called the **Sign of the Infinitive.**

The root-infinitive without "to" is used after auxiliary verbs, and in many other cases that are learned by observation. Examples are: "I will *go*;" "You dare not *do* it;" "She heard him *cry*;" "He had better *start* now."

EXERCISE 191.

Review Exercise 97. When the root-infinitive is preceded by "to," tell whether or not "to" has the force of a preposition.

214. Tenses of the Infinitive.—With the infinitives of "be" and "have" as auxiliaries we form certain **Phrasal Infinitives,** corresponding to some tense forms of the indicative, active and passive: as

ACTIVE.

Present Progressive: "I expect *to be writing* letters."
Perfect: "I am sorry *to have written* so poorly."
"He was reproved for *having written* it."
Perfect Progressive: "I ought *to have been writing* my exercise."
"His arm was cramped from his *having been writing* all morning."

PASSIVE.

Present: "The exercise must *be written*."
"She disliked *being called*[1] proud."
Perfect: "The exercise ought *to have been written*."
"She is angry at *having been called*[1] proud."

The infinitive forms may be tabulated as follows:

Root-Infinitives.

ACTIVE.

	Ordinary.	Progressive.
Present:	[to] write.	[to] be writing.
Perfect:	[to] have written.	[to] have been writing.

PASSIVE.

Present: [to] be written. *Perfect:* [to] have been written.

Infinitives in "-ing."

ACTIVE.

	Ordinary.	Progressive.
Present:	writing.	
Perfect:	having written.	having been writing.

PASSIVE.[1]

Present: being called. *Perfect:* having been called.

A *Present Infinitive* denotes action which is incomplete at the time expressed by the principal verb: as, "He tries *to write*;" "He tried *to write*;" "He will try *to write*."

A *Perfect Infinitive* is properly used to denote action which is completed at the time expressed by the principal verb: as, "Alfred is said *to have drawn*

[1] Passive infinitives in "-ing" are rare, occurring only with certain verbs.

up a body of laws;" "I felt glad *to have seen* Niagara Falls;" "I shall be glad *to have finished* my task."

Exception.—"Ought," "must," "need," and "should" (in the sense of "ought") have no distinctive form to denote past time; and with these verbs distinctions of time are denoted by changes in the form of the following infinitive, the present forms denoting present time, and the perfect forms past time: as, "You ought *to go*," "You ought *to have gone*;" "He should *be* careful," "He should *have been* careful." A similar use of the infinitive forms to denote time is found after "could" and "might" in some of their uses: as, "I could *go*," "I could *have gone*;" "You might *answer*," "You might *have answered*."

EXERCISE 192.

1. *Construct sentences illustrating the use of the different tenses of the infinitive.*

2. *Tell which of the italicized forms is right, and give the reason:—*

1. Lee intended *to attack* (*to have attacked*) at daybreak.

2. We meant *to start* (*to have started*) long ago.

3. It was his business *to prevent* (*to have prevented*) such an accident.

4. He is said *to lose* (*to have lost*) ten dollars.

5. It would have been better *to wait* (*to have waited*).

6. He could not *fail* (*have failed*) *to arouse* (*to have aroused*) suspicion.

215. Constructions of the Infinitive.—The infinitive, with or without adjuncts, is common in the following constructions:—

1. *Subject of a Verb:* as, "*To find* fault is easy;" "*Being* able to play the piano is not knowing music."

2. *Attribute Complement:* as, "Her greatest pleasure is *to raise* flowers;" "His chief difficulty is *learning* to spell."

3. *Object Complement:* as, "He likes *to read* history;" "I hate *traveling* alone."

Here belong, historically, infinitives used after "ought," "must," "dare," "need," "can," and in verb-phrases after auxiliaries (**183, 191**).

4. *Object of a Preposition:* as, "He had no choice but (i. e., except) *to obey;*" "Gladstone was fond of *chopping* down trees."

This construction properly includes root-infinitives used as the object of "to" in infinitive phrases that have the force of adjectives or adverbs (**213**): as, "Boats *to let;*" "He came *to see* me."

5. *With a Subject in the Objective Case, after Verbs of Telling, Thinking, Perceiving, and Knowing:* as, "I saw *him go;*" "We heard *her cry*" (**121**).

EXERCISE 193.

Construct sentences illustrating the uses of the root-infinitive; of the infinitive in "-ing."

VII. PARTICIPLES.

A **Participle** is a form of the verb that partakes of the nature of both verb and adjective.

216. Nature of Participles.—Participles are intermediate between verbs on the one hand and adjectives on the other. They express action, being, or state, and take the same adjuncts or modifiers as the verbs from which they are formed; but they have the constructions of adjectives. They differ from verbs in not being instruments of assertion; they differ from adjectives in having the adjuncts of verbs. A participle is "a verb in an adjectival aspect."

217. Form of the Participles.—With regard to form, participles are of two principal kinds:—

1. The **Present Participle,** formed from the root of the verb by adding "-ing:" as, "The girl *reading* a book is my cousin."

The present participle describes an action as *going on* at some particular time.

2. The **Past Participle,** usually formed from the root of the verb by adding "-ed," "-d," "-t," "-en," or "-n" **(179, 180)**: as, "The plant *called* Nightshade is poisonous;" "The book *taken* from my desk has been returned."

The past participle describes an action as *past* or *completed* at some particular time.

With the participles of "be" and "have" as auxiliaries we form certain **Phrasal Participles:** as,

ACTIVE.

Perfect: "*Having written* my letters, I went to bed."
Perfect Progressive: "*Having been writing* all day, I am tired."

PASSIVE.

Present: *Being written* in ink, the name was hard to erase.
Perfect: *Having been written* hastily, the letter contained many mistakes.

The participles may be tabulated as follows:—

ACTIVE.

Present:	writing.	*Perfect:*	having written.
Past:	written.	*Perfect Progressive:*	having been writing.

PASSIVE.

Present: being written. *Past:* written. *Perfect:* having been written.

EXERCISE 194.

1. *Review Exercise* 99.

2. *Point out the participles in Parts III and IV of Exercise* 15, *and tell the tense of each.*

218. Constructions of Participles.—Participles have all the ordinary uses of adjectives, and the following special uses in addition:—

1. *Loosely attached to the Subject of a Sentence,* to express some attendant action or condition: as, "*Hearing* a noise in the street, I sprang to the window;" "Morn, *waked* by the circling hours, unbarred the gates of light."

2. *Attached to a Nominative Absolute* (**122**): as, "Night *coming* on, we lighted a fire."

3. *With Auxiliaries in Verb-Phrases:* as, "Mother *is looking* for you;" "He *has written* a letter."

EXERCISE 195.

Point out the participles in Exercises 43, 51, *and* 52, *and tell how they are used.*

VIII. PECULIAR VERB-PHRASES.

Some verb-phrases are difficult to classify, because they have several meanings, according to the connection in which they are used.

219. Let.—"Let," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has in modern English two common uses:—

1. As a notional verb meaning "to permit:" as, "At last Pharaoh *let* the Israelites go."

2. As an auxiliary, to form a verb-phrase expressing an exhortation in the first or third person: as, "*Let* us be merry;" "*Let* us do

or die;" "*Let* thy words be few;" "*Let* him that thinketh he standeth take heed lest he fall."

220. May, Might.—"May" (past, "might"), followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has in modern English the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *permission:* as, "You *may* go now;" "She *may* come in;" "Mother said we *might* go."

2. As a notional verb denoting *possibility:* as, "It *may* rain;" "She *may* be at home;" "It *might* have been."

3. As an auxiliary, to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "I hope you *may succeed;*" "*May* you *live* long and happily;" "He said he hoped that we *might succeed.*"

221. Should.—"Should," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *duty* or *obligation:* as, "You *should* speak more slowly."

2. As an auxiliary to express futurity from the standpoint of past time: as, "He said he *should go.*"

3. As an auxiliary to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "If he *should come,* I *should have* no more fear;" "It is better he *should die.*"

222. Would.—"Would," followed by the root-infinitive without "to," has the following common uses:—

1. As a notional verb denoting *determination:* as, "He *would* not lie."

2. As a notional verb denoting *custom:* as, "He *would* sit there by the hour."

3. As an auxiliary to express futurity from the standpoint of past time: as, "She said he *would come.*"

4. As an auxiliary to form a subjunctive verb-phrase: as, "It *would be* better if we should start now."

223. Can, Must, Ought.—*Can*, meaning "to be able;" *must*, meaning "to be obliged," and *ought*, meaning "to be in duty bound," are sometimes classed as auxiliary verbs, because they are usually followed by an infinitive. But since they always retain their regular meanings, it seems better to class them as notional verbs, with the infinitive as complement.

IX. CONJUGATION.

224. Conjugation Defined.—It is often convenient to have the different forms of the verb arranged together in regular order.

Definition.—The regular arrangement of the forms of a verb in a table or scheme is called its **Conjugation.**

225. Conjugation of "Be."—The irregular verb "be" is conjugated as follows:—

Indicative Mode.

Present.	
I am.	We are.
You are (Thou art).	You are.
He is.	They are.
Past.	
I was.	We were.
You were (Thou wast, or wert).	You were.
He was.	They were.
Future.	
I shall be.	We shall be.
You will be (Thou wilt be).	You will be.
He will be.	They will be.
Present Perfect.	
I have been.	We have been.
You have been (Thou hast been).	You have been.
He has been.	They have been.

Past Perfect.

I had been.	We had been.
You had been (Thou hadst been).	You had been.
He had been.	They had been.

Future Perfect.

I shall have been.	We shall have been.
You will have been (Thou wilt have been).	You will have been.
He will have been.	They will have been.

Subjunctive Mode.[1]

(Often preceded by "if.")

Present.

I be.	We be.
You be (Thou be).	You be.
He be.	They be.

Past.

I were.	We were.
You were (Thou wert).	You were.
He were.	They were.

Present Perfect.

I have been.	We have been.
You have been (Thou have been).	You have been.
He have been.	They have been.

Past Perfect.

I had been.	We had been.
You had been (Thou had been).	You had been.
He had been.	They had been.

Imperative Mode.

Present.

Be, do be.

Infinitives.

Root-Infinitives.

Present.	Perfect.
[To] be.	[To] have been.

Infinitives in "-ing."

Present.	Perfect.
Being.	Having been.

Participles.

Present.	Past.	Perfect.
Being.	Been.	Having been.

[1] For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see **220–222.**

226. Conjugation of "Call."—The conjugation of the verb "call," which may be taken as a type of all regular verbs, is given below. For the sake of brevity, only the third person singular is given in the indicative and subjunctive, since the other forms may be easily supplied:—

Active Voice.

Indicative Mode.

Present. He calls.	Present Emphatic. He does call.	Present Progressive. He is calling.
Past. He called.	Past Emphatic. He did call.	Past Progressive. He was calling.
Future. He will call.		Future Progressive. He will be calling.
Present Perfect. He has called.		Present Perfect Progressive. He has been calling.
Past Perfect. He had called.		Past Perfect Progressive. He had been calling.
Future Perfect. He will have called.		Future Perfect Progressive. He will have been calling.

Subjunctive Mode.[1]

(Often preceded by "if.")

Present. He call.	Present Emphatic. He do call.	Present Progressive. He be calling.
Past. He called.	Past Emphatic. He did call.	Past Progressive. He were calling.
Present Perfect. He have called.		Present Perfect Progressive. He have been calling.
Past Perfect. He had called.		Past Perfect Progressive. He had been calling.

Imperative Mode.

Present. Call.	Present Emphatic. Do call.	Present Progressive. Be calling, do be calling.

[1] For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see **220–222.**

Infinitives.

Root-Infinitives.

Present.
[To] call.

Present Progressive.
[To] be calling.

Perfect.
[To] have called.

Perfect Progressive.
[To] have been calling.

Infinitives in "-ing."

Present.
Calling.

Perfect.
Having called.

Perfect Progressive.
Having been calling.

Participles.

Present.
Calling.

Past.
Called.

Perfect.
Having called.

Perfect Progressive.
Having been calling.

Passive Voice.

Indicative Mode.

Present.
He is called.

Present Progressive.
He is being called.

Past.
He was called.

Past Progressive.
He was being called.

Future.
He will be called.

Present Perfect.
He has been called.

Past Perfect.
He had been called.

Future Perfect.
He will have been called

Subjunctive Mode.[1]

(Often preceded by "if.")

Present.
He be called.

Past.
He were called.

Past Progressive.
He were being called.

Present Perfect.
He have been called.

Past Perfect.
He had been called.

[1] For subjunctive verb-phrases formed with "may," "might," "should," and "would" see **220–222.**

Imperative.

Present.	Present Emphatic.
Be called.	Do be called.

Infinitives.

Present.	Perfect.
[To] be called.	[To] have been called.

Participles.

Present.	Past.	Perfect.
Being called.	Called.	Having been called.

227. How to Parse Verbs.—To parse a finite verb (**211**), we must give its—

(1) Class: whether transitive or intransitive, strong or weak.
(2) Principal parts.
(3) Voice.
(4) Mode.
(5) Tense.
(6) Person.
(7) Number.
(8) Construction.

To parse an infinitive or a participle we must give its—

(1) Class: whether transitive or intransitive, strong or weak.
(2) Voice.
(3) Tense.
(4) Construction.

EXERCISE 196.

Parse the verbs and verb-phrases in the following sentences; also the infinitives and participles that are not used with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases:—

1. She watches him as a cat would watch a mouse.

2. What is read twice is commonly better remembered than what is transcribed.

3. A man may write at any time if he will set himself doggedly to it.

4. A falcon, towering in her pride of place,
Was by a mousing owl hawked at and killed.

5. When that the poor have cried, Cæsar hath wept;
Ambition should be made of sterner stuff.

6. The moving moon went up the sky,
And nowhere did abide;
Softly she was going up,
And a star or two beside.

7. Full fathom five thy father lies;
Of his bones are coral made;
Those are pearls that were his eyes:
Nothing of him that doth fade
But doth suffer a sea-change
Into something rich and strange.

8. True ease in writing comes from art, not chance,
As those move easiest who have learned to dance;
'Tis not enough no harshness gives offense,—
The sound must seem an echo to the sense.

9. Of all the wonders that I yet have heard,
It seems to me most strange that men should fear;
Seeing that death, a necessary end,
Will come when it will come.

10. Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king, he would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies.

11. Blandishments will not fascinate us, nor will threats of a "halter" intimidate. For, under God, we are determined that wheresoever, whensoever, or howsoever we shall be called to make our exit, we will die free men.—*Josiah Quincy, Jr.:* "Observations on the Boston Port Bill, 1774."

12. Yesterday the greatest question was decided which ever was debated in America; and a greater perhaps never was, nor will be, decided among men. A resolution was passed without one dissenting colony, that these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States.—*John Adams:* Letter to Mrs. Adams, July 3, 1776.

CHAPTER VIII

OF ADVERBS

AN **Adverb** is a word joined by way of limitation to a verb, adjective, or other adverb (**88**).

Most adverbs are used only with verbs; hence the name "adverb." The adverbs that are joined to adjectives or other adverbs are few in number.

228. Adverbs Classified According to Meaning.—Classified according to meaning, adverbs are of six kinds:—

(1) *Adverbs of time:* as, "Let us go *now*."

(2) *Adverbs of place:* as, "Come *here*."

(3) *Adverbs of manner:* as, "He fought *bravely*."

(4) *Adverbs of degree:* as, "He talks *little*."

(5) *Adverbs of cause:* as, "*Why* did you come?"

(6) *Adverbs of assertion:* as, "*Perhaps* I can help you;" "*No*; you can *not* help me."

"No" and "yes," which are used by themselves as the equivalents of sentences, are classed as adverbs for historical reasons.

EXERCISE 197.

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of adverbs, classified according to meaning.

229. Adverbs Classified According to Use.—Classified according to use, adverbs are of three kinds:—

1. *Limiting Adverbs*, used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or an adverb: as, "He walked *rapidly*;" "She is *very* pretty, and talks *exceedingly well*."

2. *Interrogative Adverbs*, used to ask questions: as, "*When* did you arrive?" Indirect: "He asked *when* we arrived."

3. *Conjunctive Adverbs*, used to introduce clauses: as, "We went on to Paris, *where* we stayed a week."

Conjunctive adverbs shade off into conjunctions, from which they frequently cannot be distinguished.

EXERCISE 198.

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of adverbs, classified according to use.

230. Adverbs Classified According to Form.— Classified according to form, adverbs are of three kinds:—

1. *Simple Adverbs*, which express their meaning without the aid of an adverbial termination: as, "Come *here*;" "That is *too* bad." This class includes nouns and adjectives that are made into adverbs by being set in an adverbial position: as, "He was *stone* dead;" "Pull *hard*."

2. *Flexional Adverbs*, which have distinctive adverbial terminations: as, "You acted *wisely*."

3. *Phrasal Adverbs*, which are idiomatic adverbial phrases that cannot easily be separated into parts. The following are common examples:—

arm-in-arm	at once	in vain
as yet	at worst	now-a-days
at all	by all means	of course
at best	by far	of late
at large	face to face	of old
at last	for good	on high
at least	ere long	one by one
at length	in general	two by two
at most	in short	

The most common form of adverb in literary English is the flexional form in "-ly." It is made freely from all kinds of adjectives except those that already end in "-ly." Adjectives that already end in "-ly," as "lively" and "friendly," usually have no corresponding adverb. We use instead some adverbial phrase: as, "in a friendly way:" "in a lively manner."

Adjectives used as adverbs are frequent in the literature of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries: as, "Then was the king *exceeding* glad" (Dan. vi, 23); "The sea went *dreadful* high" (Robinson Crusoe). They also occur somewhat freely in modern poetry. In modern literary prose they are seldom used, good writers preferring the adverbial forms in "ly," except in a few cases which may be learned by observation: "*Pitch* dark;" "He ran *fast*;" "Come *quick*;" "Stand *right*;" "I bought it *cheap*."

EXERCISE 199.

Tell which of the italicized words is correct according to the best usage, and give the reason:—

1. She gets her lessons *easy* (*easily*) enough.
2. Are you coming with us? *Sure* (*surely*).
3. Speak *slow* (*slowly*) and *distinct* (*distinctly*).
4. He could *scarce* (*scarcely*) control his feelings.
5. A person should dress *suitable* (*suitably*) to his station.

231. Comparison of Adverbs.—Many adverbs denote ideas that vary in degree, and therefore they admit of comparison, like adjectives (**162**).

Monosyllabic adverbs (and a few others) usually form their comparative and superlative degrees by adding "-er" and "-est:" as, "Pull *harder*."

Adverbs in "-ly" usually form the comparative and superlative by prefixing "more" and "most:" as, "He felt it *most keenly*."

In other respects the comparison of adverbs resembles in form and meaning the comparison of adjectives.

EXERCISE 200.

Tell which of the italicized expressions is preferable, and give the reason:—

1. I can study *easiest* (*most easily*) in the morning.
2. He writes *plainer* (*more plainly*) than he used to.
3. You ought to value your privileges *higher* (*more highly*).
4. Which can run the *faster* (*fastest*), Conner or Boardman?
5. Which is the *farther* (*farthest*) north, New York, Chicago, or San Francisco?

232. Adjective or Adverb.—It is sometimes a question whether to use an adjective or an adverb after such verbs as "grow," "look," "sound," "smell," "taste." If the added word applies to the subject of the verb, it should be an adjective; if to the verb, it should be an adverb. We say, "We feel *warm*," when we mean that we are warm; we say, "We feel *warmly* on this subject," when we mean that our feelings are stirred up. In the first sentence "warm" is an attribute complement; in the second, "warmly" is a modifier of the verb. As a rule, it is proper to use an adjective whenever the verb resembles in meaning some form of the verb "be" or "seem;" otherwise we use an adverb. Sometimes we may use either adjective or adverb, with no difference in meaning: as, "We arrived *safe* (*safely*)."

EXERCISE 201.

1. *Distinguish between :—*

1. That looks *good* (*well*).
2. We found the way *easy* (*easily*).
3. The potatoes are boiling *soft* (*softly*).
4. The new bell-boy appeared *prompt* (*promptly*).

2. *Tell which of the italicized words is correct, and give the reason :—*

1. She plays very *good* (*well*).
2. The door shut *easy* (*easily*).
3. Deal *gentle* (*gently*) with them.
4. How *sweet* (*sweetly*) those blossoms smell !
5. He stood *firm* (*firmly*) in spite of opposition.
6. He felt *awkward* (*awkwardly*) in her presence.
7. She looks *beautiful* (*beautifully*) in a pink gown.
8. He did not act *awkward* (*awkwardly*) in her presence.
9. The wind blows *cold* (*coldly*) through the gaps in these mountains.

233. Position of Adverbs.—Adverbs, like other modifiers, should be placed next to the word or words that they modify.

The word "only" requires special care, as will appear from observing how changes in its position affect the meaning of the following sentences:—

(*a*) *Only* he lost his hat. (*b*) He *only* lost his hat. (*c*) He lost *only* his hat. (*d*) He lost his *only* hat. (*e*) He lost his hat *only*.

As a general rule, "only" should be placed immediately before what it is intended to modify. Occasionally, when no ambiguity would arise (as at the end of sentences), it may be placed after the

word it modifies, with an emphatic, almost disparaging effect: as, "He lost his hat *only*."

234. Double Negatives.—Formerly two or more negative adverbs were frequently used to strengthen one another.

In modern literary English two negatives destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative: as, "I can't do nothing" = "I can (and must) do something."

235. Substitutes for Adverbs.—The adverbial function may be performed by—

(1) *A noun:* as, "The book cost a *dollar;*" "We studied an *hour*.

(2) *An adverbial phrase:* as, "He came *on foot*."

(3) *An adverbial clause:* as, "They started *when the sun rose*."

236. How to Parse Adverbs.—To parse an adverb we must give its—

(1) Class according to (*a*) meaning, (*b*) use, and (*c*) form.

(2) Comparison.

(3) Construction.

EXERCISE 202.

Parse the adverbs in Exercise 196.

CHAPTER IX

OF PREPOSITIONS

A **Preposition** is a word placed before a noun or a pronoun to show its relation to some other word (89).

The function of a preposition is to bring a noun or a pronoun into a modifying relation with a noun, a pronoun, an adjective, a verb, or an adverb: as, "The book *on* the table;" "What *in* the world was that?" "I am sorry *for* them;" "We traveled *through* England;" "He stayed out *in* the cold."

237. Prepositions Classified.—The following is a classified list[1] of the prepositions in common use:—

Simple Prepositions.

after	down	in	over	to
at	ere	of	since	under
but	for	off	through	up
by	from	on	till	with

Compound Prepositions.

aboard	around, round	between	until
about	aslant	betwixt	unto
above	athwart	beyond	upon
across	before	despite	within
against	behind	into	without
along	below	throughout	
amidst, amid	beneath	toward, towards	
among, amongst	beside, besides	underneath	

[1] *To the Teacher.*—This list is for reference, not for memorizing.

Prepositions Derived from Verbs.

barring	past	respecting
concerning	pending	saving, save
during	notwithstanding	touching
excepting, except	regarding	

Phrasal Prepositions.

according to	by way of	in opposition to
apart from	for the sake of	in place of
as for	in accordance with	in preference to
as regards	in addition to	in spite of
as to	in case of	instead of
because of	in compliance with	on account of
by means of	in consequence of	out of
by reason of	in front of	with regard to

EXERCISE 203.

Construct sentences illustrating the use of such prepositions as the teacher may select.

238. Objects of Prepositions.—The substantive following a preposition is called its **Object,** and is in the objective case. It is commonly a noun or a pronoun; but it may be any word or group of words used as a noun: as,

(1) *Noun:* Come into the *garden.*

(2) *Pronoun:* I stood behind *him.*

(3) *Adverb:* I never felt it till *now.*

(4) *Adjective:* Lift up your eyes on *high.*

(5) *Prepositional phrase:* He stepped from *behind the tree.*

(6) *Infinitive phrase:* None knew thee but *to love thee.*

(7) *Substantive clause:* Listen to *what I say.*

Used before clauses, prepositions often become indistinguishable from conjunctions: as, "He came *before* I did.

EXERCISE 204.

Construct sentences illustrating the different kinds of object that a preposition may have.

239. Prepositional Phrases.—A phrase consisting of a preposition and its object, with or without modifiers, is called a **Prepositional Phrase.** If it modifies a noun or a pronoun, it is an **Adjective Phrase:** as, "The wages *of sin* is death." If it modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb, it is an **Adverbial Phrase:** as, "Man shall not live *by bread alone.*"

Occasionally a prepositional phrase is used substantively: as, "*Over the fence* is out." In such cases there is really an ellipsis of some word which the prepositional phrase modifies.

EXERCISE 205.

Construct two sentences containing adjective prepositional phrases; two containing adverbial prepositional phrases.

240. Position of Prepositions.—Ordinarily a preposition, as its name implies, is placed before its object: as, "I sprang *to* the *window.*" Sometimes, however, it is put after its object: as, "*What* are we coming *to?*"

To the Teacher.—The theory, advanced by some grammarians, that a sentence should not end with a preposition, is not supported by the practice of the best writers, as may be seen from the following representative quotations:—

"Some little toys that girls are fond *of.*"—*Swift.*

"You see what my tricks have brought me *to.*"—*Goldsmith.*

"What god doth the wizard pray *to?*"—*Hawthorne.*

"Rather bear those ills we have
Than fly to others that we know not *of.*"—*Shakespeare.*

The following sentences are entirely in accord with the best English idiom:—

What are you looking at?	What are you thinking of?
What did you ask for?	That is all I came for.

241. Prepositions Used as Adverbs. — Some of the simplest prepositions, such as "in," "on," "off," "up," "to," were originally adverbs; and in modern English many of them are used adverbially.

1. Sometimes a preposition is used adverbially as *an inseparable adjunct of the verb:* as, "She *carried off* the prize;" "The people *laughed at* Fulton's steamboat." The adverbial force of such prepositions is shown by the fact that they stay with the verb when the sentences are changed into the passive form: as, "Fulton's steamboat was *laughed at* by the people." From this last sentence it is clear that in the former sentence, "The people *laughed at* Fulton's steamboat," "steamboat" is the object, not of the preposition "at," but of the transitive verb "laughed at."

2. Sometimes a preposition becomes an adverb through the omission of its object: as,

It was nothing to joke *about*. (Omission of "which.")

That is all I ask *for*. (Omission of "that.")

242. Special Use of Some Prepositions.—Prepositions play a very important part in our language, and have many idiomatic uses. Most of these can be learned only by observing the custom of good speakers and writers. The following notes on some special uses of a few prepositions may prove helpful:—

At, in:—Before names of places to denote "where," *at* is used when the place is viewed as a mere point; *in* is used when the speaker desires to make prominent the idea "within the bounds of:" as, "He arrived *at* Liverpool in the morning and remained *in* that city two days."

Compare to, compare with :—We compare one thing *to* another to show similarity: as, "Burke *compared* the parks of a city *to* the lungs of the body." We compare one thing *with* another to show either similarity or difference, especially difference: as, "*Compare* our comfort *with* their poverty."

Confide in, confide to :—*Confide in* means "trust in:" as, "*In* thy protection I *confide*." *Confide to* means "intrust to:" as, "He *confided* the secret *to* his mother."

Differ from, differ with :—We use *differ from* when we refer to unlikeness between objects; when we refer to disagreement in opinion we use either *differ from* or *differ with*: as, "These two books differ entirely *from* each other;" "I differ *from* or *with* the honorable gentleman on that point."

Different from :—According to the best usage the proper preposition after "different" and "differently" is *from*: as, "He is very *different from* his brother."

Like :—*Like*, which is historically an adjective or an adverb, is in some of its uses frequently called a preposition, because it resembles a preposition in function: as, "Quit yourselves *like* men;" "She looks *like* him." Since, however, it admits of comparison, some grammarians prefer to call it, even in these sentences, an adjective or an adverb governing the objective case. Similar remarks apply to some of the uses of *near*.

Of :—*Of* is often used to denote identity; and then the prepositional phrase has the force of an appositive: as, "the city *of* St. Louis," "the State *of* Ohio," "the island *of* Cuba."

Wait for, wait on :—*Wait for* means "await:" as, "We will *wait for* you at the corner." *Wait on* means "attend:" as, "At dinner the women *waited on* the men."

EXERCISE 206.

Fill the following blanks with appropriate prepositions :—

1. The king confided —— his ministers.

2. We stayed —— London two weeks —— the Victoria Hotel.

3. The marriage customs of the Russians are very different —— ours.

4. He says that he shall be back in an hour; but we cannot wait —— him.

5. Admiral Dewey remained —— the Philippines a year after his victory —— Manila Bay.

6. The conspirators confided the execution of their plot —— the youngest of their number.

7. We arrived —— Paris in the evening. —— that city we stayed —— the Hotel Normandie.

8. He who compares his own condition —— that of others will find that he has many reasons for thinking himself fortunate.

243. How to Parse Prepositions.—To parse a preposition one must give—

(1) Its object.

(2) The construction of the phrase which it introduces.

EXERCISE 207.

Parse the prepositions in Exercise 196.

CHAPTER X

OF CONJUNCTIONS

A **Conjunction** is a word used to connect sentences, phrases, or words (**90**).

Conjunctions must be carefully distinguished from prepositions and relative pronouns, which are also connecting words. A *preposition* introduces a modifying phrase; a *relative pronoun* stands for a noun with which it connects a modifying clause; a *conjunction* merely connects sentences, phrases, or words that have the same grammatical construction.

Sometimes a conjunction is used at the beginning of a paragraph to connect it with what precedes.

The most important conjunctions are: "and," "as," "although," "though," "because," "but," "for," "however," "if," "lest," "nevertheless," "nor," "or," "since," "still," "than," "that," "therefore," "wherefore," "whether," "unless," "yet."

244. Classification of Conjunctions.—Conjunctions may be arranged in two general classes:—

(1) *Coördinating Conjunctions*, which connect words, phrases, or independent sentences: as, "Sink *or* swim;" "By the people *and* for the people;" "I ran fast, *but* I missed the train."

(2) *Subordinating Conjunctions*, which introduce dependent clauses: as, "I came *because* you called me;" "Guy is older *than* Lewis [is];" "Galileo taught *that* the earth moves;" "*Unless* it rains, we shall all go."

245. Correlative Conjunctions. — Conjunctions are sometimes used in pairs, the first of the pair indicating that something will presently be added: as, "His conduct was *neither* wise *nor* just;" "*Both* John *and* Henry may go with you."

Definition.—Conjunctions used in pairs are called **Correlative Conjunctions.**

The most common correlative conjunctions are: "both — and," "either — or," "neither — nor," "whether—or," "not only—but also."

When conjunctions are used as correlatives, as "both—and," "either—or," each of the correlated words should be so placed as to indicate clearly what ideas are to be connected in thought. This principle is violated in "He *not only* visited Paris, *but* Berlin *also*." In this sentence the position of "not only" before the verb "visited" leads one to expect some corresponding verb in the second part of the sentence; in fact, however, the two connected words are "Paris" and "Berlin;" "visited" applies to both. This meaning is clearly indicated by putting "not only" before "Paris:" thus, "He visited *not only* Paris, *but* Berlin *also*." As a rule, the word after the first correlative should be the same part of speech as the word after the second correlative.

246. Phrasal Conjunctions.—The following expressions are best parsed as **Phrasal Conjunctions:**

as if	as sure as	in order that
as though	except that	for as much as
as long as	in case that	provided that
as soon as		

247. How to Parse Conjunctions.—To parse a conjunction we must tell—

(1) Its class.
(2) What it connects.

EXERCISE 208.

1. *Review Exercises* 93 *and* 94.
2. *Parse the conjunctions in Exercise* 196.

CHAPTER XI

OF INTERJECTIONS

AN **Interjection** is a word used as a sudden expression of feeling, but not forming part of a sentence (91).

248. Classification of Interjections.—Interjections may be arranged in three general classes:—

1. *Simple Interjections*, which are never anything else than interjections: as, "Oh!" "eh!" "hurrah!" "pooh!" "psha!" "tut!"

2. *Secondary Interjections*, which are other parts of speech used as interjections: as, "Mercy!" "farewell!" "nonsense!"

3. *Phrasal Interjections*, which are groups of words used as single interjections: as, "Goodness gracious!"

EXERCISE 209.

Point out the interjections in Exercise 67.

APPENDIX

LIST OF STRONG AND IRREGULAR WEAK VERBS

THE forms given in the following list are all supported by good usage; but they are not in all cases the only authorized forms. For full information on the subject, students must have recourse to the best dictionaries.

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
abide	abode	abode
alight	alighted, alit	alighted, alit
arise	arose	arisen
am (be)	was	been
awake	awoke, awaked	awaked
bear ("bring forth")	bore	born
bear ("carry")	bore	borne
beat	beat	beaten
begin	began	begun
behold	beheld	beheld
bend	bent	bent
bereave	bereft, bereaved	bereft, bereaved
beseech	besought	besought
bet	bet	bet
bid ("command")	bade	bidden
bid ("offer money")	bid	bid
bind	bound	bound
bite	bit	bitten
bleed	bled	bled
blend	blent, blended	blent, blended
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built	built
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid	chidden
choose	chose	chosen
cleave ("adhere")	cleaved	cleaved
cleave ("split")	clove, cleft	cloven, cleft
cling	clung	clung
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
cut	cut	cut
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dress	drest, dressed	drest, dressed
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
eat	ate	eaten
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forbear	forbore	forborne
forget	forgot	forgotten
forsake	forsook	forsaken
freeze	froze	frozen
get	got	got
gild	gilt, gilded	gilt, gilded
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
hang	hung, hanged [1]	hung, hanged [1]
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	hove, heaved [2]	hove [2], heaved
hew	hewed	hewn
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
know	knew	known
lade	laded	laded, laden
lay	laid	laid
lead	led	led
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie ("recline")	lay	lain
lie ("tell a falsehood")	lied	lied
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pay	paid	paid
put	put	put
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
read	read	read
rend	rent	rent
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang	rung
rise	rose	risen
rive	rived	riven, rived

[1] "Hanged" is used only of execution by hanging.

[2] "She *heaved* a sigh;" "The crew *hove* the cargo overboard."

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
seethe (intransitive)	seethed	seethed
seethe (transitive)	seethed, sod	seethed, sodden
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown
shred	shred, shredded	shred, shredded
shrink	shrank	shrunk
shrive	shrove, shrived	shriven, shrived
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang	sung
sink	sank	sunk
sit	sat	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slidden, slid
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
slit	slit	slit
smell	smelt, smelled	smelt, smelled
smite	smote	smitten
sow	sowed	sowed, sown
speak	spoke	spoken
speed	sped	sped
spell	spelt, spelled	spelt, spelled
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt
spin	spun	spun
spit	spit	spit

Present.	Past.	Past Participle.
split	split	split
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	stove, staved	stove, staved
stay	stayed, staid	stayed, staid
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stunk	stunk
strew	strewed	strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
swear	swore	sworn
sweep	swept	swept
swell	swelled	swelled, swollen
swim	swam	swum
swing	swung	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
wake	woke, waked	woke, waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove	woven
weep	wept	wept
wet	wet	wet
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write	wrote	written

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